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3 **Quantification of seasonal long physical load in soccer**
4 **players with different starting status from the English**
5 **Premier League: implications for maintaining squad**
6 **physical fitness**

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33 **Running head:** Starting status and seasonal workload in soccer

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46 **Abstract**

47 **Purpose.** To quantify the accumulative training and match load
48 during an annual season in English Premier League soccer
49 players classified as starters (n=8, started $\geq 60\%$ of games),
50 fringe players (n=7, started 30-60% of games) and non-starters
51 (n=4, started $< 30\%$ of games). **Methods.** Players were
52 monitored during all training sessions and games completed in
53 the 2013-2014 season with load quantified using GPS and
54 Prozone technology, respectively. **Results.** When including
55 both training and matches, total duration of activity ($10678 \pm$
56 916 , 9955 ± 947 , 10136 ± 847 min; $P=0.50$) and distance
57 covered (816.2 ± 92.5 , 733.8 ± 99.4 , 691.2 ± 71.5 km; $P=0.16$)
58 was not different between starters, fringe and non-starters,
59 respectively. However, starters completed more (all $P<0.01$)
60 distance running at 14.4-19.8 km/h (91.8 ± 16.3 v 58.0 ± 3.9
61 km; $ES=2.5$), high speed running at 19.9-25.1 km/h (35.0 ± 8.2
62 v 18.6 ± 4.3 km; $ES=2.3$) and sprinting at >25.2 km/h ($11.2 \pm$
63 4.2 , v 2.9 ± 1.2 km; $ES=2.3$) than non-starters. Additionally,
64 starters also completed more sprinting ($P<0.01$. $ES=2.0$) than
65 fringe players who accumulated 4.5 ± 1.8 km. Such differences
66 in total high-intensity physical work done were reflective of
67 differences in actual game time between playing groups as
68 opposed to differences in high-intensity loading patterns during
69 training sessions. **Conclusions.** Unlike total seasonal volume of
70 training (i.e. total distance and duration), seasonal high-
71 intensity loading patterns are dependent on players' match
72 starting status thereby having potential implications for training
73 programme design.

74 **Key Words:** GPS, Prozone, high-intensity zones, training load

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86 Introduction

87 Soccer match play is characterized by brief bouts of high-
88 intensity linear and multidirectional activity interspersed with
89 longer recovery periods of lower intensity.¹ Elite players
90 typically cover 10-14 km in total distance per game.²⁻⁶ where
91 both high intensity (speeds > 14.4 km · h⁻¹) and very high-
92 intensity running distance (speeds > 19.8 km · h⁻¹) contribute
93 ~25 and ~8% of the total distance covered, respectively.^{7,8} Top-
94 class soccer players also perform 150-250 intense actions per
95 game⁹ and complete a very high-intensity run approximately
96 every 72 s.⁸

97 In order to successfully meet these demands, the
98 physical preparation of elite players has become an
99 indispensable part of the professional game, with high fitness
100 levels required to cope with the ever-increasing demands of
101 match play.^{10,11} Nonetheless, despite nearly four decades of
102 research examining the physical demands of soccer match
103 play,¹² the quantification of the customary training loads
104 completed by elite professional soccer players are not currently
105 well known. For players of the English Premier League, such
106 reports are limited to a 4-week winter fixture schedule,¹³ a 10-
107 week period,¹⁴ seasonal long analysis¹⁵ and most recently, an
108 examination of the effects of match frequency in a weekly
109 microcycle.¹⁶ It is noteworthy that the absolute physical loads
110 of total distance (e.g. < 7 km), high intensity distance (e.g. <
111 600 m) and very high intensity distance (e.g. < 400 m)
112 collectively reported in these studies do not near recreate those
113 completed in matches. As such, although the typical current
114 training practices of professional players may be sufficient in
115 order to promote recovery and readiness for the next game
116 (thus reducing risk of over-training and injury), it could also be
117 suggested that it is the participation in match play itself that is
118 the most appropriate stimulus for preparing players for the
119 physical demands of match play. This point is especially
120 relevant considering previous evidence demonstrating
121 significant positive correlations between individual in season
122 playing time and aspects of physical performance including
123 sprint performance and muscle strength.¹⁷

124 Such differences between match and training load can
125 be particularly challenging for fitness and conditioning staff
126 given that players in a first team squad are likely to receive
127 different loading patterns, depending on whether they regularly
128 start matches or not. In this way, discrepancies in physical
129 loads between players could lead to differences in important
130 components of soccer-specific fitness which may subsequently
131 present itself on match day when players not accustomed to
132 match loads are now required to complete the habitual physical
133 loads performed by regular starting players. The challenge of

134 maintaining squad physical fitness is also technically difficult,
135 given both organisational and traditional training practices
136 inherent to professional soccer. For example, in the English
137 Premier League, it is not permitted for players to train on the
138 same pitch where the game was played for >15 minutes post-
139 match. Furthermore, it is often common practice for the entire
140 playing squad to be given 1-2 days of recovery following each
141 game (consisting of complete inactivity or light recovery
142 activities only), especially in those instances where the fixture
143 schedule consists of the traditional Saturday-to-Saturday
144 schedule.¹⁶

145 With this in mind, the aim of the present study was to
146 quantify the accumulative training and match load (hence total
147 accumulative physical load) across an annual season in those
148 players considered as regular starters, fringe players and non-
149 starters. To this end, we monitored outfield players from the
150 English Premier League (who competed in the 2013-2014
151 season) who were classified as starters (starting $\geq 60\%$ of
152 games), fringe players (starting 30-60% of games) and non-
153 starters (starting <30% of games). We specifically hypothesised
154 that both fringe and non-starting players would complete
155 significantly less total physical load (especially in high-
156 intensity zones) than starting players, thereby providing
157 practical applications for the development of soccer-specific
158 conditioning programme designed to maintain squad physical
159 fitness.

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161 **Methods**

162 **Subjects**

163 Nineteen professional outfield soccer players from an English
164 Premier League team (mean \pm SD: age 25 ± 4 years, body mass
165 79.5 ± 7.8 kg, height 180.4 ± 6.4 cm) took part in the study.
166 When quantifying data from the entire “in-season analysis”
167 there were 8 starters (mean \pm SD: age 25 ± 5 years, body mass
168 80.6 ± 8.3 kg, height 178.8 ± 6.3 cm), 7 fringe (mean \pm SD: age
169 26 ± 4 years, body mass 79.7 ± 7.4 kg, height 181.0 ± 7.3 cm)
170 and 4 non-starters (mean \pm SD: age 23 ± 3 years, body mass
171 74.5 kg, height 181.5 ± 6.9 cm). Players with different position
172 on the field were tested: 5 wide defenders, 4 central defenders,
173 6 central midfielders, 2 wide midfielders and 3 attackers. Long-
174 term injuries were excluded from this study if they were absent
175 for on field training for duration >4 weeks. The study was
176 conducted according to the requirements of the Declaration of
177 Helsinki and was approved by the university ethics committee
178 of Liverpool John Moores University.

179

180 **Design**

181 Training and match data were collected over a 39-week period
182 during the 2013-2014 competitive season from August 2013
183 until May 2014. The team used for data collection competed in
184 3 official domestic competitions across the season. For the
185 purposes of this current study, training sessions included for
186 analysis consisted of all of the ‘on pitch’ training each player
187 was scheduled to undertake. Sessions that were included in the
188 analysis were team training sessions, individual training
189 sessions, recovery sessions and rehabilitation training sessions.
190 A total number of 181 team-training sessions (2182 individual),
191 159 rehab sessions (213 individual), 28 recovery sessions (179
192 individual), 43 competitive matches including substitute
193 appearances (531 individual) and 12 non-competitive games
194 including substitute appearances (33 individual) were observed
195 during this investigation. All data reported are for outdoor field
196 based sessions only. We can confirm that in the season of
197 analysis, the players studied did not do any additional aerobic /
198 high-intensity conditioning in the gym or an indoor facility.
199 However, all players did complete 1-3 optional gym based
200 sessions per week (typically consisting of 20-30 minute long
201 sessions comprising upper and/or lower body strength based
202 exercises). When expressed as ‘total time’ engaged in training
203 activities (i.e. also inclusive of gym training) and games, the
204 data presented in the present paper therefore represent 78 ± 10 ,
205 79 ± 6 and $86\pm 7\%$ of ‘total time’ for starters, fringe players and
206 non-starters, respectively. This study did not influence or alter
207 any session or game in any way nor did it influence the
208 inclusion of players in training sessions and/or games. Training
209 and match data collection for this study was carried out at the
210 soccer club’s outdoor training pitches and both home and away
211 grounds in the English Football League, respectively.

212 The season was analyzed both as a whole and in 5
213 different in-season periods consisting of 4x8 weeks (periods 1-
214 4) and 1x7 week period (period 5). Players were split into 3
215 groups for the entire in season analysis and individually for
216 each in season period. The 3 groups consisted of “starters”,
217 “fringe” and “non-starters” and were split based on the
218 percentage of games started for the entire in season ($n=8, 7$ and
219 4 , respectively) and during the individual period 1 ($n=8, 5$ and
220 6 , respectively), period 2 ($n=9, 5$ and 5 , respectively), period 3
221 ($n=6, 8$ and 5 , respectively), period 4 ($n=8, 5$ and 6 ,
222 respectively) and period 5 ($n=11, 2$ and 6 , respectively).
223 Starting players started $\geq 60\%$ competitive games, fringe
224 players started 30-60% of games and non-starting players
225 started $< 30\%$ of games. The first day of data collection period
226 began in the week commencing (Monday) of the first Premier
227 League game (Saturday) and the last period ended after the
228 final Premier League game. Data for the entire in season and

229 each individual period was further divided into training and
230 matches. As outlined previously, training consisted of all ‘on
231 pitch’ training sessions that were organised and planned by the
232 clubs coaches and staff and match data consisted of both
233 competitive and non-competitive games. No data from training
234 or games from when players were on International camps were
235 collected.

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238 **Methodology**

239 Players’ physical activity during each training, rehabilitation,
240 recovery sessions and non-competitive game was monitored
241 using portable global positioning system (GPS) units (Viper
242 pod 2, STATSports, Belfast, UK). This device provides
243 position velocity and distance data at 10 Hz. Each player wore
244 the device across the upper back between the left and right
245 scapula inside a custom made vest supplied by the
246 manufacturer. This position on the player allows the GPS
247 antenna to be exposed for a clear satellite reception. This type
248 of system has previously been shown to provide valid and
249 reliable estimates of some of the movements related to soccer,
250 although it should be noted that fast, more instantaneous, and
251 more multidirectional movements are measured less
252 accurately.¹⁸⁻²¹ All devices were activated 30-minutes before
253 data collection to allow acquisition of satellite signals, and
254 synchronize the GPS clock with the satellite’s atomic clock.²²
255 Following each training session, GPS data were downloaded
256 using the respective software package (Viper PSA software,
257 STATSports, Belfast, UK) and were clipped to involve the
258 “main” organised session i.e. the beginning of the warm up to
259 the end of the last organized drill for each player, the initiation
260 of exercise to the cessation of exercise on individual training,
261 recovery and rehab sessions or the start of the game until the
262 end of the game with any distances and times covered and
263 undergone during the half-time period removed. In order to
264 avoid inter-unit error, players wore the same GPS device for
265 each training sessions.^{23,24}

266 Players’ match data were examined using a
267 computerized semi-automatic video match-analysis image
268 recognition system (Prozone Sports Ltd®, Leeds, UK) and
269 were collected using the same methods as Bradley et al.⁸ This
270 system has previously been independently validated to verify
271 the capture process and subsequent accuracy of the data.²⁵

272 Variables that were selected for analysis included
273 duration, total distance and 3 different speed categories that
274 were divided into the following thresholds: running (14.4-19.7

275 km · h⁻¹), high-speed running (19.8-25.1 km · h⁻¹), and sprinting
276 (>25.1 km · h⁻¹). High-intensity running consists of running,
277 high-speed running and sprinting (running speed >14.4 km · h⁻¹
278 1). Very high-intensity running consists of high-speed running
279 and sprinting (running speed > 19.8 km · h⁻¹). The speed
280 thresholds for each category are similar to those reported
281 previously in match analysis research^{7,8} and are commonly used
282 day to day in professional soccer clubs.

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285 **Statistical Analysis**

286 All of the data are presented as mean ± standard deviation
287 (SD). Data were analysed using between-group one-way
288 ANOVAs for independent samples. When the F-test was
289 significant (p<0.05), post-hoc pairwise comparisons were
290 performed, in which the significance level was adjusted to
291 0.017 (Bonferroni correction). Cohen's d indices were
292 calculated for all pairwise differences to determine an effect
293 size (ES). The absolute ES value was evaluated according to
294 the following thresholds: < 0.2 = trivial, 0.2-0.6 = small, 0.7-
295 1.2 = moderate, 1.3-2.0 = large, and > 2.0 = very large.

296

297 **Results**

298 **Seasonal long comparison of “total” physical load**

299 A comparison of seasonal physical load (inclusive of both
300 training and matches) is presented in Table 1. Although there
301 was no significant difference in total duration (P=0.502) and
302 distance covered (P=0.164) between player categories, non-
303 starters completed significantly less running (P=0.002;
304 ES=2.5), high-speed running (P=0.004; ES=2.3) and sprinting
305 (P=0.003; ES=2.3) than starters. Additionally, fringe players
306 completed significantly less sprinting than starters (P=0.002;
307 ES=2.0) though no differences were apparent in running
308 (P=0.062) and high-speed running (P=0.038) between these
309 groups.

310 **Seasonal long comparison of total “training” and “match” 311 physical load**

312 A comparison of seasonal long training and match load is
313 presented in Figure 1A and B (for duration and total distance).
314 In relation to matches, both fringe and non-starters completed
315 less duration of activity (both P<0.01; ES=2.7 and 5.7,
316 respectively) and total distance (both P<0.01; ES=5.4 and 2.5,
317 respectively) compared with starters. Additionally, non-starters

318 also completed less duration (P=0.001; ES=0.7) and total
319 distance than fringe players (P=0.001; ES=0.7). In relation to
320 training, differences were only apparent between non-starters
321 and starters where non-starters spent longer time training
322 (P=0.003; ES=2.4) and covered greater total distance (P=0.003;
323 ES=2.3).

324 **Seasonal long comparison of “training” and “match”**
325 **physical load in high-intensity speed zones**

326 Seasonal long distance covered in running, high-speed running
327 and sprinting in both training and matches is displayed in
328 Figure 2A-C. In relation to matches, both fringe and non-
329 starters completed significantly less distance in running (both
330 P<0.01; ES=1.7 and 4.0, respectively), high-speed running
331 (both P<0.01; ES=2.0 and 3.4, respectively) and sprinting (both
332 P<0.01; ES=2.2 and 2.6, respectively) compared with starters.
333 In addition, fringe players covered significantly more distance
334 in running than non-starters (P=0.008; ES=0.7). However, no
335 differences were apparent between fringe and non-starters for
336 high-speed running and sprinting (P=0.026 and 0.045; ES=0.7
337 and 0.5, respectively). In contrast to match load, no differences
338 were observed between groups for distance completed in
339 running, high-speed running and sprinting during training
340 (P=0.297, 0.658 and 0.802, respectively).

341 **Comparison of “total” physical load within specific in-**
342 **season periods**

343 Total duration, total distance and distance completed in high-
344 intensity speed zones within 5 in-season periods of the season
345 are presented in Table 2. For duration of total activity,
346 significant differences were only observed in periods 4
347 (P=0.004; ES=1.9) and 5 (P=0.001; ES=2.2) where non-starters
348 completed less total duration of activity than starters,
349 respectively. Similarly, non-starters also completed less total
350 distance than starters in periods 3-5 (all P<0.01, respectively;
351 ES=1.9, 3.1 and 3.4, respectively), less running in periods 1, 3,
352 4 and 5 (all P<0.01, respectively; ES=1.0, 2.3, 3.6 and 3.6,
353 respectively), less high-speed running in periods 3-5 (all
354 P<0.01, respectively; ES=2.1, 2.6 and 3.0, respectively) and
355 less sprinting in periods 2-5 (all P<0.01, respectively; ES=1.6,
356 2.5, 3.0 and 2.5, respectively). Furthermore, starters completed
357 more sprinting distance than fringe in periods 3 and 4 (both
358 P<0.01, respectively; ES=2.2 and 1.6, respectively) but fringe
359 only differed from non-starters in period 4 only where they
360 completed more sprinting (P=0.006; ES=1.2).

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363 **Comparison of “training” and “match” physical load**
364 **within specific in-season periods**

365 Duration of activity, total distance, running, high-speed
366 running and sprinting in matches are displayed in Figure 3A-E.
367 As expected, in periods 1-5, starters had higher duration and
368 than both non-starters (all $P<0.01$; ES=2.7, 2.6, 13.2, 11.9 and
369 5.6, respectively) and fringe (all $P<0.01$; ES=1.9, 1.6, 4.0, 5.5
370 and 2.5, respectively) whilst fringe players also exhibited
371 higher durations than non-starters in periods 3-5 (all $P<0.01$;
372 ES=0.9, 1.3 and 2.3). Similarly, starters covered higher total
373 distances in periods 1-5 than both non-starters (all $P<0.01$;
374 ES=2.6, 2.5, 9.5, 12.8 and 5.9, respectively) and fringe (all
375 $P<0.01$; ES=1.9, 1.6, 3.0, 5.1 and 2.4, respectively) and fringe
376 players covered higher total distances than non-starters in
377 periods 3-5 (all $P<0.01$; ES=0.9, 1.3 and 2.3, respectively).

378 In relation to specific speed zones, starters completed
379 more running in periods 1-5 than non-starters (all $P<0.01$;
380 ES=2.2, 2.1, 5.1, 7.2 and 4.7, respectively), more high-speed
381 running in periods 1-5 (all $P<0.01$; ES=1.8, 1.9, 3.5, 5.5 and
382 3.8) and more sprinting in periods 2-5 (all $P<0.01$; ES=1.7, 2.8,
383 3.2 and 2.5). Moreover, starters completed more running than
384 fringe players in periods 3 ($P=0.009$; ES=1.7) and 4 ($P=0.001$;
385 ES=2.6), more high-speed running in periods 3 ($P=0.003$;
386 ES=2.0) and 4 ($P=0.004$; ES=2.1) and more sprinting in periods
387 3 ($P=0.001$; ES=2.2) and 4 ($P=0.012$; ES=1.7). Fringe players
388 also covered more running distance in periods 3-5 (all $P<0.01$;
389 ES=0.9, 1.3 and 2.3, respectively), more high-speed running in
390 periods 4 ($P=0.002$; ES=1.3) and 5 ($P=0.008$; ES=2.2) and
391 more sprinting in period 4 ($P=0.003$; ES=1.3) than non-starters.

392 Duration of activity, total distance, running, high-speed
393 running and sprinting in training are displayed in Figure 4A-E.
394 In contrast to matches, total duration of activity was only
395 different in period 3 ($P=0.014$; ES=1.8) where non-starters
396 trained for longer durations than starters. In addition, starters
397 completed less total distance in periods 3 and 4 compared to
398 non-starters (both $P<0.01$; ES=2.5, 1.8, respectively) and non-
399 starters also covered more total distance in period 3 than fringe
400 players ($P=0.007$; ES=0.4). Non-starters also covered more
401 running than starters and fringe players in period 3 (both
402 $P<0.01$; ES=2.1 and 0.6, respectively) and more high-speed
403 running than starters in period 4 ($P=0.015$; ES=1.5). Finally, no
404 differences were apparent between groups for sprinting during
405 periods 1-5 ($P=0.506, 0.361, 0.605, 0.521$ and 0.487).

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409 **Discussion**

410 The aim of the present study was to quantify the accumulative
411 training and match load (and total accumulative physical load)
412 during an annual season in those players considered as regular
413 starters, fringe players and non-starters. Contrary to our
414 hypothesis, we observed that starting status had no effect on the
415 apparent total volume completed, as reflected by total duration
416 of activity and total distance covered during the season.
417 Perhaps more important, however, was the observation of
418 significant differences in the pattern of activity completed
419 within specific high-intensity speed zones. In this regard, we
420 report that starters generally completed more distance in
421 running, high-speed running and sprinting zones than both
422 fringe and non-starting players. This effect was largely due to
423 differences in game time between groups as opposed to
424 differences in training loading patterns. Given the role of
425 training intensity in promoting soccer-specific fitness,^{10, 26-28}
426 our data therefore suggest that the training practices of those
427 players not deemed to be receiving appropriate game time
428 should be altered to include more emphasis on recreating the
429 high-intensity demands of match play, so as to potentially
430 maintain overall squad fitness, game readiness and reduce
431 injury risk.

432 To the authors' knowledge, this is the first study to
433 report seasonal long physical loads completed by elite
434 professional soccer players. In our seasonal long accumulation
435 analysis, we observed no evidence of starting status affecting
436 total duration of activity or total distance covered across the
437 entire in-season period (see Table 1). For example, total
438 duration and total distance were similar in starters, fringe and
439 non-starters. These distances are substantially higher (e.g.
440 approximately 400 km) than that observed in a competitive in-
441 season in other team sports such as Australian Football²⁹ likely
442 due to shorter seasons in the latter i.e. 22 weeks (18 weeks in
443 the study) versus 39 weeks in the English Premier League.

444 Although we observed no differences in the seasonal
445 long profile between groups (i.e. duration and total distance
446 covered), the proportion of this volume made up from training
447 and game is, as expected, significantly different between
448 groups. For example, in relation to training, starters displayed
449 lower duration and total distances than non-starters but not
450 fringe players. This fact is, of course, due to the fact that
451 starting players engage in "recovery" training activities and
452 days after games as opposed to traditional training sessions.^{13,16}
453 When quantifying match load, however, starters displayed
454 higher duration and total distance than both fringe players and
455 non-starters. Given the obvious difference between the physical
456 and physiological demands between training and matches,^{13,16}

457 such data could potentially suggest that the long-term
458 physiological adaptations arising within these playing groups
459 are likely very different. This point is especially apparent when
460 considering the large discrepancy between intensity specific
461 physical loads between groups. For example, starters covered
462 higher distances in running and high-speed running speed
463 zones, respectively, when compared with non-starters, but not
464 fringe players (see Table 1). In addition, seasonal long distance
465 covered whilst sprinting was also higher in starters compared to
466 both fringe players and non-starters. As such, these data
467 demonstrate that although players are able to maintain similar
468 volume across the in-season period, distance covered in high-
469 intensity zones is considerably greater in starters.

470 The differences in high-intensity loading patterns
471 between groups is also especially relevant when considering
472 that such differences were not due to alterations in training
473 loads but rather, merely due to starters engaging in the high-
474 intensity activity associated with match play. Indeed, we
475 observed no difference in running, high-speed running and
476 sprinting in training *per se* between starters, fringe players and
477 non-starters. In contrast, starters displayed higher distance in
478 matches when running, high-speed running and sprinting
479 compared to fringe and non-starters (see Figure 2A-C). Such
480 data clearly highlight that it is the participation in match play
481 *per se* which represents the most appropriate opportunity to
482 achieve high-intensity loading patterns. The practical
483 implications of such discrepancies are important for designing
484 training programmes to maintain overall squad physical fitness
485 and game readiness. Indeed, the distances covered at these
486 speeds during games display strong associations to physical
487 capacity^{30,31} and thus, players not consistently exposed to such
488 stimuli during the season may eventually display de-training
489 effects when compared to that displayed in the pre-season
490 period.^{10,17} Indeed, completion of high-intensity activity (even
491 at the expense of total physical load done) is both sufficient and
492 necessary to activate the molecular pathways that regulate
493 skeletal muscle adaptations related to both aerobic^{32,33} and
494 anaerobic³⁴ performance. Additionally, when those players
495 classified as fringe or non-starters are then required to start
496 games, a potential for injury also exists due to the necessity to
497 complete uncustomary loading patterns.³⁵

498 In addition to the seasonal long physical loads, we also
499 quantified the training and match load within 5 discrete periods
500 of the in-season period. In this analysis, we observed that
501 variations in physical load between groups were especially
502 evident in periods 3, 4 and 5, an effect that was especially
503 apparent between starters and both non-starters and fringe
504 players for total duration, total distance and total zone 6 activity
505 (i.e. sprinting). Similar to the seasonal long analysis, these

506 differences between groups were also largely reflective of
507 differences in game time as opposed to training time. Such
508 differences in loading within specific in-season periods are
509 likely due to tactical and technical differences associated with
510 specific fixture schedules. For example, in the present study,
511 period 3 was the winter fixture schedule¹³ whereas periods 4
512 and 5 were reflective of a period where the team under
513 investigation were challenging for domestic honours. In all of
514 these periods, the management and coaching staff displayed
515 little squad rotation policies and hence, differences in loading
516 inevitably ensued.

517 Despite the novelty and practical application of the
518 current study, our data are not without limitations, largely a
519 reflection of currently available technology and the practical
520 demands of data collection in an elite football setting. Firstly,
521 the simultaneous use of both GPS and Prozone® to quantify
522 training and competitive match demands, respectively, has
523 obvious implications for the comparability of data between
524 systems.^{38,39} Nevertheless, during the chosen season of study, it
525 was against FIFA rules to wear GPS in competitive matches.
526 Whilst it is now within the rules to wear GPS in competitive
527 games, it is still not common policy due to managers’
528 preferences, players’ comfort issues and poor signal strength
529 due to the roofing in many stadiums in the English Premier
530 League. Secondly, we also chose to not report data from games
531 or training from International camps given that the loads of
532 these practices were not controlled by the current research team
533 or club’s tactical and coaching staff. Finally, this study is only
534 reflective of one team (albeit reflective of a top English Premier
535 League team) and hence may not be representative of the
536 customary training and match demands of other domestic teams
537 or teams from other countries. When taken together, the
538 simultaneous use of GPS in training and games, quantification
539 of load in additional settings and the use of wider based
540 samples all represent fruitful areas for future research.

541

542 **Practical Applications**

543 Given that we observed distinct differences in high-
544 intensity distance completed throughout the season, our data
545 have obvious practical implications for training programme
546 design. In this regard, data suggest that players classified as
547 fringe and non-starters should engage in additional high-
548 intensity training practices and/or complete relevant time in
549 non-competitive friendlies and U21 games in an attempt to
550 recreate the high-intensity physical load typically observed in
551 competitive first team games. This point is especially important
552 given the relevance and importance of high-intensity activity in

553 both building and maintaining aspects of soccer specific
554 fitness.^{10,36,37} Furthermore, our observation of more marked
555 differences in periods 3, 4 and 5 of the season also suggest that
556 specific attention should be given to those periods of the season
557 when tactical choices dictate low-squad rotation policies.
558 Future studies should now correlate changes in physical load
559 during the season to seasonal variation in soccer-specific fitness
560 components as well as introducing soccer-specific training
561 interventions at the relevant in-season periods (e.g. Iaia et al.
562 ³⁷).

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564

565 **Conclusions**

566 In summary, we quantify for the first time the accumulative
567 training and match load (and total accumulative physical load)
568 during an annual season in those players considered as regular
569 starters, fringe players and non-starters. Importantly, although
570 we report that total duration of activity and total distance
571 covered was not different between playing groups, we observed
572 that starters generally completed more time in high-intensity
573 zones than fringe and non-starters players. Our data
574 demonstrate the obvious importance of participation in game
575 time for completing such high-intensity physical load. Such
576 data suggest that the training practices of these latter groups
577 should potentially be manipulated in order to induce
578 comparable seasonal workloads.

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580

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586 training during the season of analysis.

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750 TABLE 1 – Total duration (minutes), total distance (km),
751 running distance (km), high-speed running distance (km) and
752 sprinting distance (km) covered across the entire in-season
753 period, as inclusive of both training and matches. * denotes
754 difference from starters, $P < 0.05$ (Bonferroni corrected).

755

756 TABLE 2 – Total duration (minutes), total distance (km),
757 running distance (km), high-speed running distance (km) and
758 sprinting distance (km) within 5 specific in-season periods. *
759 denotes difference to starters, # denotes difference to fringe
760 players, $P < 0.05$ (Bonferroni corrected).

761

762 FIGURE 1 – Accumulative season long A) duration and B)
763 total distance in both training and matches. Shaded bars =
764 training and open bars = matches. * denotes difference to
765 starters (matches), # denotes difference to fringe players
766 (matches), ^a denotes difference to starters (training), $P < 0.05$
767 (Bonferroni corrected).

768

769 FIGURE 2 – Accumulative season long A) running distance, B)
770 high-speed running distance and C) sprinting distance in both
771 training and matches. Shaded bars = training and open bars =
772 matches. * denotes difference to starters, $P < 0.05$ (Bonferroni
773 corrected).

774

775 FIGURE 3 – Within period accumulative A) duration, B) total
776 distance, C) running distance, D) high-speed running distance

777 and E) sprinting distance in match per se. * denotes difference
778 to starters, # denotes difference to fringe players, $P < 0.05$
779 (Bonferroni corrected).

780

781 FIGURE 4 – Within period accumulative A) duration, B) total
782 distance, C) running distance, D) high-speed running distance
783 and E) sprinting distance in training per se. * denotes difference
784 to starters, # denotes difference to fringe players, $P < 0.05$
785 (Bonferroni corrected).

786