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1 **Abstract:**

2  
3 Training load monitoring has grown in recent years with the acute:chronic workload ratio (ACWR)  
4 widely used to aggregate data to inform decision-making on injury risk. Several methods have been  
5 described to calculate the ACWR and numerous methodological issues have been raised. Therefore,  
6 this study examined the relationship between the ACWR and injury in a sample of 696 players from 13  
7 professional rugby clubs over two seasons for 1718 injuries of all types and a further analysis of 383  
8 soft tissue injuries specifically. Of the 192 comparisons undertaken for both injury groups, only 40%  
9 (all injury) and 31% (soft tissue injury) were significant. Furthermore, there appeared to be no  
10 calculation method that consistently demonstrated a relationship with injury. Some calculation methods  
11 supported previous work for a “sweet spot” in injury risk, while a substantial number of methods  
12 displayed no such relationship. This study is the largest to date to have investigated the relationship  
13 between the ACWR and injury risk and demonstrates that there appears to be no consistent association  
14 between the two. This suggests that alternative methods of training load aggregation may provide more  
15 useful information, but these should be considered in the wider context of other established risk factors.  
16

17 **Introduction:**

18 Training load monitoring has become an integral component of injury risk management in recent years,  
19 largely due to the ease with which it can be modified and optimised for each athlete. The acute: chronic  
20 workload ratio (ACWR) is a measure of athlete training load that accounts for both the fatigue (acute)  
21 and fitness (chronic) status of the athlete [1]. Given the apparent ecological validity of the measure,  
22 ACWR has been widely adopted across team sports to aggregate athlete training load data with the aim  
23 of managing injury risk [1-3]. Typically, the ACWR has been calculated by dividing a chronic (28 day  
24 rolling average) value by an acute (7 day rolling average) load to produce a ratio, with values greater  
25 than one representing higher acute load relative to the four week average, and values less than one  
26 representing lower acute load relative to the four-week load [1,4]. However, a number of  
27 methodological considerations [5-8] and concerns regarding the applicability and validity of the  
28 measure [9-13] have questioned whether the measure offers any value in managing athlete injury risk.  
29

30 The ACWR can be calculated using different averaging methods (rolling averages- RA, and  
31 exponentially weighted moving averages- EWMA [5,14]), different time periods [6], and using coupled  
32 or un-coupled loads [7]. Since the original use of 7 and 28-day acute and chronic time periods, other  
33 time-frames have been suggested ranging from 2-14 days (acute) and 12-56 days (chronic)[6,15], which  
34 may be more representative of the time periods over which fatigue and fitness decay. More recently,  
35 Dalen-Lorentsen and colleagues [13] have demonstrated that the link between the ACWR and injury is  
36 highly variable based on the methods used to calculate the ACWR (including RA and EWMA, and  
37 differing time periods). This indicates that the relationship is not consistent and a product of the

38 calculation method itself, as opposed to a consistent link between ACWR derived training load and  
39 injury.

40

41 In rugby union, the risk of injury is high compared with that of other team sport (81 per 1000 match  
42 hours [16]) and therefore modifiable risk factors such as training load offer a potentially useful method  
43 for injury risk mitigation. While, little evidence exists in rugby union as to the utility of the ACWR  
44 [17,18], establishing the extent to which methodological parameters could be influencing the link  
45 between the ACWR and injury risk in this setting is prudent. Importantly, it is well established that  
46 injury aetiology is multifactorial in nature [19] and therefore when examining the link between training  
47 load and injury, other well known risk factors must be considered. In rugby union, these include (but  
48 are not limited to) previous injury [20], previous concussion [21], match minutes [20], playing position  
49 [22] and age [22,23]. Therefore the aim of this study is to investigate the association between the ACWR  
50 and injury risk in a league wide sample of 13 teams, while accounting for other known injury risk  
51 factors.

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54 **Methods:**

55 **Subjects:**

56 Data were captured from 13 Premiership clubs in the 2015-16 and 2016-17 seasons (ten clubs for two  
57 seasons, three clubs for one season (due to relegation/promotion and one club not providing data in one  
58 season)). In 2015-16, 433 players were recruited and in 2016-17, 569 players were recruited, for a total  
59 of 1002 player-seasons (696 unique players). Injury data were collected as part of the Professional  
60 Rugby Injury Surveillance Project; each player was provided with a participant information sheet, with  
61 individual consent obtained voluntarily. The study was approved by the xxxxxx and meets the ethical  
62 standards of the journal [24].

63

64 **Procedures:**

65 Time-loss injuries were defined as “an injury that results in a player being unable to take a full part in  
66 future rugby training or match play for more than 24 hours from midnight at the end of the day the  
67 injury was sustained”[25] with all match and training injuries collected by club medical staff. Training  
68 load data were collected by club conditioning staff using the session Rating of Perceived Exertion  
69 (sRPE) method [26]. This measure was chosen for its ease of use, applicability to multiple session types,  
70 and widespread use in professional rugby [27,28]. Within 30 minutes of each session, participants were  
71 asked to rate their session (1-10) using a modified CR-10 Borg scale [26,29]. This number was then  
72 multiplied by the session length (in minutes) to produce a single global score for the whole session.  
73 Staff were instructed to blind the players to one another’s scores to ensure no bias was introduced in  
74 the collection. Data were collected daily and sent monthly to the lead researcher for collation in a  
75 standard format using Microsoft Excel.

76

77 Five well-documented injury risk factors were also included as covariates: position, age, previous  
78 injury, previous concussion and cumulative match minutes (all in the past 12 months). Player position  
79 and age were obtained using baseline data reported at the start of each season. Six position categories  
80 were used: front row, second row and back row (forwards) and half backs, centres and the back three  
81 (backs). Previous injury and previous concussion were captured by the primary researcher by  
82 retrospectively analysing the previous seasons injury data (count per player). Match minutes were  
83 summed over a rolling 12-month period. The selection of reference categories has previously been  
84 reported as a challenge to analysing the training load-injury risk relationship [1]. Therefore, the  
85 selection of reference categories was decided *a priori*. Both position and age reference categories were  
86 arbitrarily assigned as the “back three” and the 18-23 year old grouping, respectively. A “moderate-  
87 low” grouping of 1 previous injury was selected for previous injury as the data demonstrated that the  
88 majority of players were likely to experience one injury per 12 months (69% in 2015-16 and 77% in  
89 2016-17). In contrast, the “Low” (no previous concussion in the past 12 months) previous concussion  
90 category was chosen as the majority of players did not experience one concussion over a rolling 12

91 month period (23% in 15-16 and 28% in 16-17). A “moderate-low” category for match minutes (455-  
92 888 minutes or 5.7-11.1 full match equivalents) was chosen as it has previously been shown as a high  
93 risk range in rugby union [20]. A binary injury indicator (0-No/ Yes-1) was included for each athlete  
94 on each day of the study period. All days (training days, match days and rest days) were included in the  
95 calculation the ACWR. However, because there was no risk of rugby-related injury on days with no  
96 rugby exposure, those days were not analysed to determine whether ACWR was associated with injury  
97 [31]. No latent period was included, as the derived measures were updated and analysed daily [32].

98

99 **Statistical Analysis:**

100 All covariate risk factors (position, age, previous injury, previous concussion and cumulative match  
101 minutes) and the fixed load measurement of interest (i.e. the ACWR) were included in multivariable  
102 analyses to identify key risk factors, as determined by the *GLMERSelect* stepwise selection procedure  
103 via the “*StatisticalModels*” package [33]. Polynomial and interaction terms were evaluated in this  
104 process. The covariates retained by the backwards selection of fixed effects (previous injury, previous  
105 concussion and cumulative match minutes) were included in the final models alongside three previously  
106 identified training load measures shown to represent distinct components of training load [34]. These  
107 measures were: an acute load (3,5,7 or 9 days), a chronic load (14, 21, 28 or 28 days) and the  
108 corresponding ACWR variable. Multicollinearity between covariates was assessed using Variance  
109 Inflation Factors (VIF), with a VIF of  $\geq 10$  deemed to show substantial collinearity [17,35].

110

111 The training load dataset file was imported into Matlab (Matlab 2018b, MathWorks) to  
112 programmatically produce the data combinations required for analysis. For each daily load value per  
113 player, each possible ACWR calculation method was produced, including RA and EWMA [14],  
114 coupled and uncoupled [7,36] and each time frame (3,5,7,9,14,21,28,35). This procedure resulted in the  
115 following ACWR measure for each player each day (Fig 1). These data were exported from Matlab into  
116 RStudio for analysis.

117

118 \*\*\*\*\* INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE \*\*\*\*\*

119

120 Final analysis of the training load and injury risk relationship was undertaken for two separate outcome  
121 variables: all injury types and non-contact soft tissue injuries only. For the purpose of this analysis, soft  
122 tissue injuries were defined as any muscle, tendon or ligament issue occurring from a non-contact  
123 mechanism. Generalised linear mixed models were used to assess the relationship between each of the  
124 ACWR metrics and injury risk, using the “*lme4*” package [37]. Repeated observations within players  
125 were accounted for using a random effect for each player ID, which was nested within the player’s club.  
126 Model fit was assessed using the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) with a smaller AIC value  
127 representing a better model fit. Area Under the Curve (AUC) was also assessed, with a higher AUC

128 value representing a better performing model [38]. The ACWR was modelled as a continuous variable  
129 [30] with a polynomial term to account for non-linear relationships. For each method of calculation,  
130 three comparisons on injury risk were made; moderate versus low ACWR (i.e. the mean ACWR to -1  
131 standard deviation(SD)), moderate versus high (i.e. mean to +1SD) and low versus high (-1SD to +1SD)  
132 [13,39]. Estimated injury probability at each of these values (-1SD, Mean and +1SD) was expressed as  
133 the injury hazard (risk per player per exposure day), with comparisons between groups expressed as  
134 hazard ratios with 90% confidence intervals [32]. In this study, an ACWR “Sweet Spot” was deemed  
135 to be when the moderate category represented the lowest risk and was significantly lower than either  
136 the low or high category. Confidence intervals were set at 90% to allow for the possibility that the true  
137 value lies 5% either below the lower limit or above the upper limit [40]. All analysis was undertaken  
138 using RStudio (RStudio, Inc. Version 1.1.463).

139

140 **Results:**

141

142 **Acute: chronic workload ratio and all injury type**

143 Over the study period 129,448 training load values were collected (excluding days off), while 1718  
144 injuries were recorded (383 soft tissue). Individual comparisons between ACWR groups for each of the  
145 calculation methods are outlined in supplementary figures (All Injury Types: S1- Coupled and rolling,  
146 S2- Coupled and EWMA, S3- Uncoupled and rolling, S4- Uncoupled and EWMA, Soft Tissue Injuries  
147 only: S5- Coupled and rolling, S6- Coupled and EWMA, S7- Uncoupled and rolling, S8- Uncoupled  
148 and EWMA). For all injuries, of the 192 comparisons made (i.e. Moderate to Low ACWR, Moderate  
149 to High ACWR, Low to High ACWR for all ACWR calculation methods), 77 (40%) significant results  
150 were produced (Figure 2A). The coupled EWMA 3-to-14 day calculation method produced the best  
151 model fit (AIC = 20108, AUC = 0.69). The uncoupled EWMA ACWR showed the greatest support for  
152 a “sweet spot” (63%: Figure 3).

153

154 **Adjusted covariate effect:**

155 The three selected covariates (previous injury, previous concussion, and match minutes) were also  
156 included in the generalised linear mixed model. Table 1 and 2 demonstrate the adjusted relative risks  
157 for the three covariates, for all injury and soft tissue injuries, respectively. For each new ACWR  
158 interaction (Figure 1), the acute and chronic time frames were changed to match the ACWR. For all  
159 injury types, previous injury, match minutes and acute and chronic loads demonstrated significant  
160 effects on injury risk. For soft tissue injury, only previous injury demonstrated a significant effect.

161

162 \*\*\*\*\* INSERT FIGURE 2 HERE \*\*\*\*\*

163

164 \*\*\*\*\* INSERT TABLE 1 HERE \*\*\*\*\*

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\*\*\*\*\* INSERT FIGURE 3 HERE \*\*\*\*\*

**Acute: chronic workload ratio and soft tissue non-contact injury**

Of the 192 comparisons made for soft tissue injuries, 60 (31%) were found to have significant findings (Figure 2B). The calculation with the best model fit according to AIC was the uncoupled rolling average 3-to-14 day method (AIC: 5692), with a coupled EWMA 5-to-14 days ACWR representing the highest AUC (0.64). An uncoupled EWMA ACWR demonstrated the largest number of significant findings (65%). This method also showed the greatest support for a “sweet spot” (75%) (Figure 4).

\*\*\*\*\* INSERT TABLE 2 HERE \*\*\*\*\*

\*\*\*\*\* INSERT FIGURE 4 HERE \*\*\*\*\*

**Discussion:**

Training load monitoring has grown exponentially in recent years, with the ACWR being a widely adopted method of aggregating the data to inform decision making on injury risk [1]. However, recent evidence suggests that this metric may not be valid for undertaking such analysis, with a number of papers questioning its utility [8,9,12,13]. The current study, which includes ~130,000 training load values and ~1700 injuries, has demonstrated the substantial variation that exists between the method used to calculate ACWR and injury risk outcomes. For all injury types, the calculation method producing the highest AUC in this setting was a coupled EWMA 3-to-14 ACWR (AUC: 0.69), whilst for soft tissue injuries it was a coupled EWMA 5-to-14 ACWR (AUC: 0.64). Of the 192 comparisons undertaken for all injury types, 77 (40%) were statistically significant, while 60/192 (31%) of the comparisons for soft tissue injuries were statistically significant. Despite the large number of significant findings, there was no consistent manner through which the ACWR was associated with injury risk. One of the most commonly cited findings in this field of work (an ACWR “Sweet Spot) was supported using some ACWR calculation methods, however, a substantial number of the methods displayed no such relationships.

**Associations between the ACWR and Injury risk**

The most widely used method for calculating ACWR in previous studies has been a coupled rolling 7-to-28 day ACWR [2]. For both all injury types and soft tissue injuries, this study supported this finding with at least one significant result (e.g. Table S5). While these findings support previous work, several other methods of calculation demonstrate significant findings, while others show no association at all. Of the 192 possible comparisons for each injury type, only 40% (all injury) and 31% (soft tissue injury)

202 demonstrated significant findings, which is higher than those reported in youth soccer in a similar  
203 analysis (19%:[13]) and is likely a result of a bigger sample size. Although 40% and 31% of calculation  
204 methods produced significant findings, the apparent random nature by which these were distributed  
205 across calculation methods do not allow us to identify any methods (time frames, averaging methods  
206 or coupling methods) which consistently produce a clear outcome. This apparently random distribution  
207 of significant associations between ACWR and injury make implementing one method to manage injury  
208 risk very difficult to support.

209

210 In accordance with previous work [2,41], the EWMA method of averaging data was more likely to find  
211 a significant finding than the rolling average equivalent in all cases (Figure 3&4). In the case of all  
212 injury types, coupled loads demonstrated a higher proportion of significant findings (Figure 3), however  
213 with soft tissue injuries, given the high proportion of EWMA uncoupled values producing significant  
214 effects (65%: Figure 4), uncoupled load showed a higher number of significant findings. Given the  
215 work of Lolli et al. [7] questioning whether the correlation between the ACWR and injury when using  
216 coupled loads is spurious, the findings of this study appear to support this spurious relationship, with  
217 inconsistent links between different calculation methods and injury risk. Based on the inconsistencies  
218 in finding significant results demonstrated by the current study, this study of league wide data  
219 accentuates the apparent randomness of associations between the ACWR and injury [12]. This further  
220 questions whether this metric adds any value above examining acute and chronic loads in isolation,  
221 which provide similar information without the use of ratios, which have previously been shown as  
222 problematic [9,12].

223

#### 224 **ACWR Sweet Spot and Injury**

225 The concept of an ACWR “sweet spot”, whereby injury risk is highest when you have a low (<0.8) or  
226 high (>1.3) ACWR value, was first introduced in 2016 [1]. Since then, several others have reported  
227 sweet spots, however with differing sweet spot values in each case [38,42,43], with subsequent  
228 questions as to whether demonstration of a sweet spot is a robust concept or a methodological artefact.  
229 In this study, of the 64 different calculation methods assessed, only 15 (23%) showed a significant  
230 ACWR “sweet spot” for all injury risk and 18 (28%) for soft tissue injuries. As such, in 77% (all injury)  
231 and 72% (soft tissue injury) of cases no such finding was apparent. When specifically considering  
232 analysis using a 7-to-28 day acute and chronic period, a greater number (6/8) of methods resulted in a  
233 significant finding, but even here none of the calculations reached an AUC of 0.70 which is described  
234 as “acceptable” level of discrimination [44].

235

#### 236 **Why do we see such variation?**

237 This is not the first study to demonstrate differences in the association between the ACWR calculation  
238 method and injury risk [6,12,13,41]. There are several reasons as to why this variation may exist. In the



239 current literature, no clear causal link between training load and injury risk has been established, given  
240 the inability of observational cohort studies to infer causation. One theory reports the accumulation of  
241 fatigue and consequential reduced stress bearing capacity of the tissue to be the link between the two  
242 [45]. However, in the context of this study, the accumulation of fatigue does not support the findings in  
243 which low ACWR values represent an increased risk [8]. The lack of literature further limits our level  
244 of support for the method, with no study yet to employ a randomised control trial (RCT) study design.  
245 Even in the presence of an RCT, given the number of covariates that likely moderate training load and  
246 given the emerging evidence of the complexity of the interaction between those covariates in injury  
247 [46], isolating the effect of training load alone on injury risk is challenging.

248  
249 In the context of this study, the reasons for differences in injury risk depending on the calculation  
250 method may be a product of what is included in each of those time periods. Previously, it has been  
251 shown that training scheduling confounds the ACWR-injury relationship [47] and therefore in this study  
252 when comparing different time periods, the difference in match and training load between the lowest  
253 and highest periods is substantial. However, there do not appear to be any time periods which  
254 demonstrate consistent associations with injury, again supporting the random nature of interactions  
255 between ACWR and injury as opposed to a link between the content of that time period and injury risk.

256  
257 Finally, there is growing evidence that the use of a ratio adds little more than noise to the use of either  
258 variable alone [12], which in isolation are sufficient in understanding an athlete's training status. The  
259 evidence suggesting the limited utility of the ACWR have demonstrated that this may be a product of  
260 spurious correlation due to mathematical coupling [7]. Furthermore, it has been proposed that the use  
261 of a ratio serves as a tool to simply rescale the acute load, which has been shown to increase the effect  
262 estimates and decrease the variance [12]. When considering the substantial variation caused by  
263 calculation methods in this, and other studies [13], the support for the use of the ACWR to monitor  
264 injury risk in rugby union is low. This, however, does not mean that training load is not important in  
265 managing injury risk and future studies should focus on other measures of load, which do not include a  
266 ratio.

## 267 268 **Limitations**

269 This study was conducted in a large group of 13 clubs over a 2-season period and therefore one of the  
270 limitations of this study is that only one measure of load was used; sRPE. This metric was chosen for  
271 its applicability across a number of training modalities and has also been reported as a valid and reliable  
272 internal load measure [48]. It therefore must be acknowledged that other measures of load (either  
273 internal or external) may display more consistent patterns, however in the context of the league-wide  
274 data capture in this study, sRPE was the most practical load measurement to be included. Similarly,  
275 although this study assessed and accounted for several contextual factors, when making decisions on

276 injury risk in athletes, a broad range of factors must be considered as opposed to looking at any one  
277 training load metric [49,50]. A second limitation is the lack of a lag-period in the analysis, which has  
278 previously been reported as important as spikes in load can increase risk in injury for up to four weeks  
279 [15,51,52]. While it may be important to consider this, there is currently no consensus on the best  
280 methodological approach for doing so [32]. Furthermore, analysis of the relationship between training  
281 load and injury risk outcomes, was only undertaken on days on which the athlete was exposed to rugby  
282 (either match or training) [31].

## 284 Conclusion

285 The inconsistency with which the ACWR is associated with injury indicates that results are largely  
286 driven by the methods chosen to calculate the ACWR, and not the 'athlete preparedness' construct it is  
287 purported to represent. As such, evidence for a causal relationship between the ACWR and injury risk  
288 is currently lacking. More advanced statistical approaches, such as machine learning, may help to  
289 elucidate the causal role of training load for injury risk in the future. For rugby union practitioners and  
290 in the absence of an alternative, the ACWR may currently be viewed as a simple heuristic to inform  
291 training progression, but one that should be considered alongside other established risk factors (i.e.,  
292 match exposure, previous injury, and previous concussions) when managing injury risk.

## 294 Figure Captions:

295  
296 Figure 1: Schematic representing the number of different ACWR calculation methods produced from  
297 each daily load variable.

298  
299 Figure 2: Heatmap outlining significance of each comparison (Low to Moderate, Moderate to High,  
300 Low to High) for each ACWR calculation method (as outlined in table 1). A represents outcomes for  
301 all injury types, B represents non-contact soft tissue injuries only. Low= -1SD, Moderate= Mean  
302 ACWR, High= +1SD. EWMA=Exponentially Weighted Moving Average. 0.00 represents a value of  
303 <0.01.

304  
305 Figure 3: Summary of ACWR associations with all injury types.

306  
307 Figure 4: Summary of ACWR associations with soft tissue injury types.

## 309 Table Captions:

310  
311 Table 1: Adjusted relative risk for all injury types after inclusion in multivariate model

312  
313 Table 2: Adjusted relative risk for soft tissue injuries after inclusion in multivariate model

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**Supplementary Table Captions:**

Table S1: Model Fit, Injury Hazard and between group comparisons for **all** injuries, using a **coupled rolling** average method. Groups: Low= -1 standard deviation of ACWR, Moderate= Mean ACWR score, High= +1 standard deviation of ACWR. Significant comparisons are highlighted in bold.

Table S2: Model Fit, Injury Hazard and between group comparisons for **all** injuries, using a **coupled exponentially weighted moving average** method. Groups: Low= -1 standard deviation of ACWR, Moderate= Mean ACWR score, High= +1 standard deviation of ACWR. Significant comparisons are highlighted in bold.

Table S3: Model Fit, Injury Hazard and between group comparisons for **all** injuries, using a **uncoupled rolling** average method. Groups: Low= -1 standard deviation of ACWR, Moderate= Mean ACWR score, High= +1 standard deviation of ACWR. Significant comparisons are highlighted in bold.

Table S4: Model Fit, Injury Hazard and between group comparisons for **all** injuries, using a **uncoupled exponentially weighted moving average** method. Groups: Low= -1 standard deviation of ACWR, Moderate= Mean ACWR score, High= +1 standard deviation of ACWR. Significant comparisons are highlighted in bold.

Table S5: Model Fit, Injury Hazard and between group comparisons for **soft tissue non-contact** injuries, using a **coupled rolling** average method. Groups: Low= -1 standard deviation of ACWR, Moderate= Mean ACWR score, High= +1 standard deviation of ACWR. Significant comparisons are highlighted in bold.

Table S6: Model Fit, Injury Hazard and between group comparisons for **soft tissue non-contact** injuries, using a **coupled exponentially weighted moving average** method. Groups: Low= -1 standard deviation of ACWR, Moderate= Mean ACWR score, High= +1 standard deviation of ACWR. Significant comparisons are highlighted in bold.

Table S7: Model Fit, Injury Hazard and between group comparisons for **soft tissue non-contact** injuries, using a **uncoupled rolling** average method. Groups: Low= -1 standard deviation of ACWR, Moderate= Mean ACWR score, High= +1 standard deviation of ACWR. Significant comparisons are highlighted in bold.

351 Table S8: Model Fit, Injury Hazard and between group comparisons for **soft tissue non-contact**  
352 injuries, using a **uncoupled exponentially weighted moving average** method. Groups: Low= -1  
353 standard deviation of ACWR, Moderate= Mean ACWR score, High= +1 standard deviation of ACWR.  
354 Significant comparisons are highlighted in bold.

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