1 2	Monitoring fatigue status in elite team sport athletes: Implications for practice			
3	Brief Review			
4	RT. Thorpe <sup>1,2</sup> , G. Atkinson <sup>3</sup> , B. Drust <sup>2</sup> , W. Gregson <sup>2</sup>			
5	<sup>1</sup> Medicine and Science Department, Manchester United, Manchester, UK			
6	<sup>2</sup> Football Exchange, Research Institute for Sport and Exercise Sciences, Liverpool			
7	John Moores University, UK			
8	<sup>3</sup> Health and Social Care Institute, Teesside University, UK			
9				
10	Corresponding Author:			
11	Robin T. Thorpe			
12	Manchester United, Aon Training Complex, Birch Road off Isherwood Road,			
13	Carrington, Manchester M31 4BH			
14	E-mail: <u>robin.thorpe@manutd.co.uk</u>			
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- 21 Abstract
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23 The increase in competition demands in elite team sports over recent years has 24 prompted much attention from researchers and practitioners into the monitoring of 25 adaptation and fatigue in athletes. Monitoring of fatigue and gaining an understanding 26 of athlete status may also provide insights and beneficial information pertaining to 27 player availability, injury and illness risk. Traditional methods used to quantify 28 recovery and fatigue in team sports such as maximal physical performance 29 assessments may not be feasible in order to detect variations in fatigue status 30 throughout competitive periods. The implementation of more quick, simple and non-31 exhaustive tests such as athlete self-report measures (ASRM), autonomic nervous 32 system (ANS) response via heart rate derived indices and to a lesser extent jump 33 protocols may serve as promising tools to quantify and establish fatigue status in elite 34 team sport athletes. The robust rationalization and precise detection of a meaningful 35 fluctuation in these measures are of paramount importance for practitioners working 36 alongside athletes and coaches on a daily basis. There are various methods for 37 arriving at a minimal clinically important difference (MCID), but these have been 38 rarely adopted by sports scientists and practitioners. The implementation of 39 appropriate, reliable and sensitive measures of fatigue can provide important 40 information to key stakeholders within team sport environments. Future research is 41 required to investigate the sensitivity of these tools to fundamental indicators such as 42 performance, injury and illness.

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### 45 Introduction

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Elite team sport athletes, particularly those in the professional football codes, are exposed to high competition loads, particularly in recent years. These high loads reflect a number of factors, including an increased frequency of domestic competitions, particularly for higher-level athletes, as well as a higher intensity of competition due to enhanced player preparation strategies. <sup>1</sup> Higher loads may also result from the increased demands of international competition during both the domestic season and the off-season period.

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55 An increased availability of athletes for selection, as a result of a reduction in injuries, substantially increases a team's chance of success.<sup>2</sup> Therefore, injury prevention 56 57 strategies are fundamental to the work of the athlete's support team. Routine 58 modifications in training load (frequency, duration, intensity) occur during the 59 training cycle and these subsequently increase or decrease fatigue. Management of 60 fatigue is important in mediating adaption to training and ensuring the athlete is 61 prepared for competition, <sup>3</sup> as well as for reducing the athletes susceptibility to non-62 functional overreaching, injury and illness.<sup>4</sup>

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64 The importance of managing athlete fatigue has led to an increase in interest in 65 monitoring athlete loads, particularly in terms of the measures which may offer 66 insights into whether the athlete is adapting positively or negatively to the collective 67 stresses of training and competition. In the present review, we will consider 68 published research concerned with the monitoring of fatigue status in team sport 69 athletes. Information derived from other sports will be examined where evidence in 70 team sport settings is not available. While there are studies in which various proposed

71 moderators and mediators have been found to be statistically significantly associated 72 with fatigue status, in our paper we also highlight the various measurement issues and 73 practical considerations which should be considered by those responsible for the 74 development and implementation of player monitoring systems in the field. We focus, 75 especially, on the neglected topic of all the different approaches to selecting a 76 minimal worthwhile change in fatigue status. It is hoped that our overview will 77 provide the basis for the development of a framework for evaluating fatigue status in 78 team sports and provide some guidance for future investigators.

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80 It is not our intention to comprehensively describe the available information on the 81 etiology of fatigue or the scientific basis of common recovery intervention practices.

Such information can be found in several excellent recent reviews.<sup>5,6</sup> For the purpose of this review, and to align with previous reviews in this area, fatigue will be defined as "an inability to complete a task that was once achievable within a recent time frame" <sup>3,7</sup>

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### 87 Methods for Monitoring Fatigue

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89 Training load reflects the internal and external loads imposed upon the athlete.<sup>8</sup> 90 External load relates to work completed by the athlete independent of his or her 91 internal characteristics and is important for understanding the capabilities and 92 capacities of the athlete.<sup>7</sup> The internal load, or the relative physiological strain 93 resulting from the external training factors, is also crucial to determining both the 94 stress imposed and subsequent adaptation to training.<sup>9</sup> A combination of both the 95 external and internal load is therefore important for training since the uncoupling or 96 divergence of external and internal loads may differentiate between a non-fatigued and a fatigued athlete. <sup>3,7</sup> This approach is particularly relevant in "closed loop" sports 97 98 like cycling where the performance outcome is time, and the power produced by the 99 rider is known to have a relatively precise association with the performance time. 100 Under such conditions, the internal load needed to sustain a certain external load 101 (power output) can provide important information regarding the athletes fatigue 102 status.<sup>7</sup>

In contrast to "closed loop' sports, the ability to relate external and internal loads in 103 104 "open loop' sports like team sports is difficult due to the inherent variability in physical performance during sport-specific training drills <sup>10</sup> and match-play. <sup>11</sup> As a 105 consequence, attempts to monitoring the fatigue status of team sport athletes have 106 largely focused on the assessment of internal and external load measures under resting 107 108 conditions and/or during submaximal exercise assessments on the morning prior to 109 training. Within the confines of this approach, a valid indicator of fatigue in team 110 sports should be sensitive to training load and their response to acute exercise should be distinguishable from chronic changes in adaptation.<sup>12</sup> Prospective tools should 111 112 also be non-invasive, quick and easy to administer and limit any additional loading on 113 the athlete. This is particularly important in football codes, where competition occurs 114 on a weekly basis and in some instances on 2-3 occasions a week meaning that 115 players are required to peak with limited recovery between matches.

- 116 Athlete self-report measures
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118 Recent surveys on fatigue monitoring in high performance sport demonstrate that athlete 119 self-report measures (ASRM) are used extensively for assessing the overall well-being of team sport athletes. <sup>13</sup> A plethora of ASRM currently exist including the POMS, <sup>14,15</sup> DALDA, <sup>16</sup> TQR <sup>17</sup> and REST-Q <sup>18,19</sup> which have been extensively documented in the 120 121 122 literature. However, many of these are often extensive and time-consuming to complete 123 preventing their use on a daily basis with large numbers of team athletes. Many team 124 sports therefore often adopt shorter, customised questionnaires which can be administered on daily basis.<sup>13</sup> A recent review highlighted that ASRM demonstrate 125 greater sensitivity to acute and chronic training loads compared to commonly used 126 objective measures. <sup>20</sup> In team sports, for example contemporary Australian Football 127 League (AFL) and English Premier League (EPL) research has shown custom 128 129 psychometric scales to be sensitive to daily, within-weekly and seasonal changes in training load. <sup>21–23</sup> Indeed, daily ASRM (fatigue, sleep quality, stress, mood and muscle 130 131 soreness) were significantly correlated with daily training load in a pre-season camp and competitive period in AFL and EPL players respectively. <sup>22,24</sup> Similarly, ASRM were 132 sensitive to changes in training load during typical weeks in AFL and EPL players across 133 the course of the season. <sup>21,23,25</sup> Further importance of ASRM and relationship with 134 135 injury/illness has been observed in Rugby League, in this study fluctuations in ASRM 136 between macrocycles were shown to provide useful insights into possible illness risk in 137 players. <sup>26</sup> Further work is required to examine the relationships between ASRM and 138 injury/illness risk in team sport athletes.

- 139
- 140 Autonomic Nervous System (ANS)
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1 Autonomic Ivervous System (AIVS)

The ANS is interlinked with many other physiological systems, <sup>27</sup> significant attention in the literature has therefore centered upon the use of indictors of ANS functioning for determining an athletes overall adaptation/fatigue status. To date this has largely stemmed from studies examining the sensitivity of heart rate (HR) derived indices including resting heart rate (RHR), exercising heart rate (HRex) <sup>28</sup>, heart rate variability (HRV) <sup>27,28</sup> and heart rate recovery (HRR) <sup>28,29</sup> to fluctuations in training and competition load.

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150 Submaximal heart rate (HRex) Decreases in HR during standardised exercise bouts 151 have traditionally been associated with increases in aerobic fitness. However, the 152 majority of data available has reported inconsistent results in non-team sport athletes. 153 Heart rate during intensified training and during varying intensities showed 154 significant reductions in overreached triathletes. Le Meur and colleagues suggested a 155 hyper-activation of the parasympathetic nervous system via central, cardiac and/or periphery mechanisms. <sup>30,3128</sup> Recent observations in AFL have also reported 156 157 reductions in heart rate in response to training during pre-season, although, the 158 authors concluded this was more possibly due to the effects of training/environmental 159 induced changes in plasma volume than acute changes in fitness or fatigue. Contrary 160 to these reports, exercising heart rate in EPL players failed to fluctuate in response to within week changes in training and match load over the course of a season.<sup>25</sup> The 161 162 use of HRex in healthy athletes to predict negative effects in performance or fatigue 163 should be treated with caution and interpreted together with other potential measures of fatigue such as ASRM. <sup>28,32</sup> 164

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166 Heart rate variability (HRV) Vagal-related time domain parameters of HRV have 167 recently received greater attention than more traditional spectral analyses due to their superior reliability and assessment capture over short periods of time. <sup>33,34</sup> Sensitivity 168 169 to changes in training load and performance has mainly been observed in non-team 170 sports. <sup>27,35</sup> Generally, HRV is reduced (sympathetic dominance) in the immediate 171 days following intense exercise, <sup>36</sup> however, results from endurance sports have shown inconsistent results. <sup>37</sup> Little evidence currently exists with regards to its 172 sensitivity to fluctuations in training and competition load in team sports. In AFL 173 174 players undertaking pre-season training in the heat, a vagal-related HRV parameter 175 (SD1) was largely and statistically significantly correlated (r=~0.5) to daily RPE-TL. 176 <sup>22</sup> However, these unexpected changes in parasympathetic activity may have been 177 partly mediated through thermoregulatory mechanisms associated with alterations in 178 plasma volume. <sup>22,36</sup> In elite soccer, HRV (Ln rMSSD) appeared to decrease (r=-0.2), albeit, transiently in response to high-speed running distance.<sup>24</sup> Contrastingly, in the 179 same population, HRV did not change across a standard in-season training week.<sup>25</sup> 180 181 Interestingly, data derived from endurance sports have suggested that the sensitivity 182 of HRV to training and competition may be improved when data is averaged over a 183 week or using 7-day rolling averages compared to the use of single data points due to 184 the high day-to-day variation in these indices. However, undertaking such measures may prove difficult with the large volume of athletes engaged in team sports. <sup>38</sup> Future 185 186 research is needed to determine whether such approaches enhance the suitability of 187 these measures for use in team sport populations.

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189 Heart rate recovery (HRR) Post exercise HRR reflects general haemodynamic 190 adjustments in relation to body position, blood pressure regulation and metaboreflex 191 activity, which partly drives sympathetic withdrawal and para-sympathetic 192 reactivation. <sup>39</sup> Recent findings in endurance sports have shown that HRR may serve as a sensitive marker of acute training load alteration, <sup>27,29</sup> although this association 193 194 has yet to be seen in team sports. <sup>32</sup> HRR did not fluctuate in response to daily and within week training load variability in EPL players. <sup>24,25</sup> Data from physically active 195 men and women have shown a delay in HRR following increases in training load.<sup>27</sup> 196 197 More recently, non-functionally overreached elite triathletes showed a faster (8 beats 198 per min) HRR compared to elite triathlete controls following the same training 199 program. <sup>40</sup> It appears that HRR is responsive to both acute and chronic changes in 200 training load, however, the exact direction of this change and whether HRR can detect 201 fatigue status remains unclear and should be interpreted alongside training status and with caution. <sup>41</sup> 202

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### 204 Physical Performance

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206 A variety of maximal performance assessments (sprints, repeated sprints, jumps and 207 maximal voluntary contractions) have been used in attempt to quantify the rate of 208 recovery of performance in the hours and days following training and competition in 209 team sports. <sup>42–46</sup> Whilst these types of assessment provide important information, the application of physical performance tests which are exhaustive in nature and time 210 211 consuming to deliver means they are often unsuitable for use in team sport environments.<sup>46,47</sup> Quick, efficient and without additional load represent the only feasible 212 213 maximal performance assessments applicable for team sport players.

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#### 215 Neuromuscular function

216 Various jump protocols including squat jump (SJ) and countermovement jump (CMJ) 217 have been adopted to examine the recovery of neuromuscular function following competition with significant decreases for up to 72-hours routinely reported. <sup>42-46</sup> 218 219 However, less attention has focused on examining their sensitivity to changes in 220 training load. CMJ was not sensitive as a measure of neuromuscular status in EPL 221 players when analysed alongside daily fluctuations in training load, furthermore, data 222 derived from elite Rugby Sevens and adolescent soccer players revealed no change in 223 countermovement jump height or correlation to training load during a taper and across a training period respectively. <sup>48–50</sup> The use of jump height per se as a global indicator 224 225 of neuromuscular function may lack the sensitivity to detect changes in training load 226 in previous studies. Moreover, CMJ height alone may mask alternative neuromuscular 227 measures and their sensitivity to alterations in load. Reductions in 18 different 228 neuromuscular variables were found following a high-intensity fatiguing protocol in 229 college-level team sport athletes. <sup>51</sup> Neuromuscular parameters (eccentric, concentric, and total duration, time to peak force/power, flight time:contraction time ratio) 230 231 derived from CMJ were deemed suitable for neuromuscular fatigue detection. <sup>51</sup> In 232 AFL, variations in force-time parameters (flight time:contraction time ratio) were 233 observed over the course of a season, indicating sensitivity to increases in load over time. <sup>52</sup> Future research is required to investigate whether alternative measures 234 235 derived from CMJ are sensitive to changes in training load in elite team sport athletes.

## 236 Joint range of motion (JROM)/ Flexibility237

Simple clinical assessments of JROM have been typically performed on a one-off 238 basis as part of a pre-season screening battery in elite team sport. <sup>53</sup> However, there is 239 240 a lack of data reporting JROM responses to training and match load. Indeed, the 241 assessment of JROM more regularly during competitive periods may provide greater 242 information pertaining to structural fatigue and potential injury risk compared to a 243 single pre-season assessment. In elite soccer players, knee range of motion was 244 reduced until 48-hours post-match.<sup>43</sup> Similarly, Mohr and colleagues (2015) found knee joint range of motion declined 7% at both 24- and 48-hours post-match. <sup>54</sup> 245 Moreover, structural assessments quantifying hip/groin extensibility have shown good 246 247 reliability and validity following match-play in youth soccer players. <sup>55</sup> Indeed, a 248 reduction of more than 12.5% in adductor (bent knee fall out test) range 14-hours 249 post-match was deemed a meaningful change in youth soccer players. The simple and 250 quick nature of JROM assessments evaluating key anatomical regions may provide a 251 greater understanding of structural status and potential injury risk. Future research is 252 required, to examine the time-course of recovery for JROM measures post-match and 253 their sensitivity to changes in load in team sport athletes.

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### 256 Biochemical/Hormonal/Immunological

A large amount of research has examined a range of biochemical, hormonal and immunological responses to team sport competition. <sup>46,47</sup> It is beyond the scope of this article to review the collective literature surrounding the responses of such measures in team sports, however, no definitive marker has been derived for examining the fatigue status of athletes. Furthermore, the associated costs and in some instances time 263 consuming nature of their analyses, often means many of these measures are impractical264 for use in the team sport environment.

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266 A variety of markers have been used in an attempt to examine potential levels of muscle 267 damage in athletes. Creatine kinase (CK) increases immediately post-match in soccer <sup>43</sup> 268 and rugby <sup>56</sup> and peaks between 24-48-hours with a return to baseline values observed from 48-120-hours. <sup>42–46,57</sup> Although widely used, questions remain regarding the exact 269 270 mechanism of activity following exercise and its relationship with muscle function 271 recovery. <sup>46,58</sup> IL-6 is produced in larger amounts than any other cytokine prompting its use as a global measure of inflammation. <sup>59</sup> IL-6 peaks immediately following the 272 cessation exercise and then rapidly returns to baseline values after 24-hours. <sup>42,43,54</sup> C-273 274 reactive protein (CRP) and uric acid have been found to be a more sensitive marker of inflammation following soccer match-play. <sup>43,45,54</sup> Indeed, increases of up ~50%, 48-275 hours post-match has been observed in elite soccer players. <sup>45</sup> Furthermore in a similar 276 study in elite soccer players, uric acid peaked 72-hours following a match. <sup>43</sup> Adrenal 277 278 hormones cortisol and testosterone have been shown to increase up to 48-hours following 279 competition and up to 50% post-competition in team sports respectively. <sup>54</sup> Salivary 280 immunoglobulin A (S-IgA) has become a popular means to assess mucosal immunity in 281 athletes following via the use of real time lateral flow devices. In EPL players S-IgA showed reductions during a taper phase and a period of international competition, <sup>60,61</sup> 282 283 Little longitudinal data particularly around competition and training phases currently 284 exists in team sports. The impractical nature and cost of individual samples may explain 285 the limited data assessing biochemical, hormonal and immunological measures over 286 extended training and competition periods in team sports.

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## **Measurement Considerations**

290 In a recent BJSM editorial, McCall et al. (2016) described the concept of "working 291 fast - working slow", whereby the researcher undertakes robust and sometimes long-292 term studies in order for the practitioner to make informed sometimes "on the spot" 293 decisions in conjunction with players and coaches. <sup>62,63</sup> This "working fast – working 294 slow" concept is a relevant measurement issue because practitioners need to ensure 295 that a given measurement of fatigue or performance can be interpreted quickly and 296 accurately against the backdrop of random within-subjects variability, which may be 297 quantified by the researcher in a well-designed reliability study. Any measurement of 298 fatigue also needs to be interpreted with knowledge about how valid the measurement 299 tool is to the ultimate outcomes of player performance, illness and/or injury. This knowledge is derived from well-designed and robust validity studies <sup>64</sup> as well as 300 301 prognostic-type studies in which fatigue is the predictor and injury rate, for example, 302 is the outcome.

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304 Measurement decisions should definitely not be based solely on whether a particular 305 reliability or validity statistic, e.g. a correlation coefficient, is "statistically significant" or not. <sup>64</sup> Similarly, published general qualitative thresholds of 306 "excellent", "good" or "moderate" measurement statistics may not always be fully 307 308 informative for decision making purposes. For example, it has been thought in the 309 past that a measurement tool can be deemed sufficiently reliable if the test-retest 310 coefficient of variation (CV) is <10% and/or if a test-retest correlation is >0.8, but the 311 rationale for these general thresholds has not been very clearly described in the past. 312 <sup>64</sup> The ideal process is for a given measurement of fatigue status to be interpreted

313 relative to both random within-subjects variability (thereby deriving the "minimal 314 detectable change") as well as the minimum value that has been deemed to be clinically or practically important; the "MCID". <sup>65–67</sup> It is important to consider that 315 316 the minimal detectable change might not be the same as the MCID. A minimum 317 detectable change is the smallest true change that has a reasonable probability of 318 being statistically significant. A properly-powered study should mean that the 319 minimum detectable effect is achieved, but this effect size might still not be clinically 320 or practically important.

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322 Once the MCID has been selected and reliability/validity information is collected on a 323 relevant sample, this process is essentially probabilistic in nature, whereby one can 324 estimate the chances that a given measurement exceeds the MCID. While useful 325 spreadsheets exist to undertake this process <sup>68</sup> the magnitude of the selected MCID is 326 critical for the process of monitoring fatigue to be useful and informative in the field.

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The quantification of an MCID is also imperative for accurate *a priori* sample size estimations in applied research. <sup>69</sup> This sample size estimation is important for ethical and economic reasons. It may be unethical and wasteful of time and money for a researcher to collect data, possibly with invasive methods, if the sample size is too small to detect the MCID. A large sample size may also be unethical if a treatment effect could have been quantified with adequate precision using a much smaller sample.

An MCID might be relatively straightforward to select in "closed loop" sports like 336 337 individual track cycling where the performance outcome to anchor to is clearly time, 338 and objective indicators like the power produced by the rider are known to have a 339 relatively precise association with this performance time. Changes in performance 340 time (and associated indicators) may also be stable enough for the practitioner to link directly to meaningful changes in athlete ranking. <sup>68</sup> Nevertheless, the selection of an 341 342 MCID for team sport performance is more difficult due to the multi-component nature 343 of these sports and the relatively high within-subject variability in physical 344 performance between successive soccer-specific training drills <sup>10</sup>and match-play. <sup>11,70</sup> 345 Furthermore, the use of highly demanding maximal performance tests, as possible 346 closer surrogates of match performance, is dificult in team sports due to the limited 347 recovery time between frequent competitions and matches. The magnitude of an 348 MCID may also depend on whether it is considered from the perspective of the 349 athlete, the coach or even the club's financers/owners. For example, an MCID for a 350 player may be the change in fatigue that leads to a perceived increase in match 351 performance. The coach may be more interested in the MCID that confers the greatest 352 probability of longer-term availability and the financers may be more interested in the 353 MCID that confers both the former consequences as well as adding to the transfer 354 value of the player. Obviously, all of these anchors are associated with each other, yet 355 it is uncommon for these different perspectives to be considered together, using a 356 Delphi method for example.

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The approaches for selection of an MCID have mostly been considered in detail from a clinical trial perspective. <sup>66,67,71</sup> Researchers and practitioners could gather information about the MCID using expert/end-user opinion, evidence synthesis and a pilot study, ideally by triangulating across these different approaches. Nevertheless, although a certain difference derived from an evidence synthesis or pilot study might

- be a realistic target, it might not necessary be clinically/practically important itself.
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366 There are two main types of approaches for quantifying an MCID; anchor and distributional (statistical). In the "anchor" approach, the measurement (or change in 367 368 measurement) is anchored to an associated change in another external measure of 369 change; the anchor variable. For example, a change in fatigue status could be 370 anchored to changes in illness, soft-tissue injury and/or match performances/rankings. 371 Ideally, the robustness of any relationship between an indicator variable (or exposure) 372 and the anchor should be quantified in prognostic-longitudinal type research. <sup>72</sup> In 373 these types of studies, it is imperative to employ the most appropriate analysis approaches, as highlighted recently by Finch and Marshall.<sup>73</sup> These authors 374 375 recommended that epidemiological studies into sports injuries should use the 376 "Subsequent Injury Categorisation model" to make full use of all the longitudinal data 377 that are collected.

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379 Distributional approaches for specifying an MCID can be based on the standard error 380 of measurement (typical error) and/or the between-subjects SD for the measured 381 variable (e.g. >0.2SDs). In the former approach, a measurement (or change in 382 measurement) is compared with an MCID that is larger than the random and 383 unavoidable within-subjects variability (standard error of mean). Additional decisions 384 in this approach are how much larger than random variability should the MCID be as 385 well as what level of statistical precision should be selected, although it has been 386 reported that a reasonable MCID approximates to 1SEM<sup>74</sup>

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388 A related concept to the SEM is the "minimal detectable change". For example, a 389 change in measurement could be deemed important if it exceeds twice the standard 390 deviation of differences (derived from a reliability study). The standard deviation of 391 differences can be estimated by multiplying the SEM by  $\sqrt{2}$ . This threshold of 2xSD 392 of differences is essentially the 95% limits of agreement described by Bland and 393 Altman. <sup>75,76</sup>

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395 Health economics may also be factored into the MCID selection process. This would 396 involve defining a threshold value for the cost of a change in performance or a 397 reduction in illness or injury that a coach or team owner is willing to pay. Then data 398 on the differences in costs, effects and harms can be all considered together to arrive 399 at an estimate of relative efficiency. It is common for changes in measurements to be 400 considered on a standardised scale, e.g. as a given fraction of the between-subjects 401 standard deviation. Various thresholds have been proposed for trivial, small, medium and large effects. <sup>77,78</sup> For injury applications, binary or survival (time-to-event) 402 403 outcome metrics (e.g. an odds, risk or hazard ratio) can be considered in a similar 404 way. Effect size thresholds for risk ratio values depend on the "nominal" event 405 proportion, i.e. that observed in the control group.

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# 408 Practical Applications & Future Direction409

410 Elite team sport athletes compete on a weekly basis and often 2-3 times per week in the 411 football codes. Whilst adhering to the fundamental measurement requirements outlined in 412 this review, prospective fatigue monitoring tools should also be non-invasive and time 413 efficient due to the large volume of players who may require assessing on any given day. The tools should also minimize any additional loading due to the limited recovery time 414 415 available to team sport athletes during the competition phase. Recent surveys on current 416 trends of fatigue monitoring in high performance sport, highlight athlete self-report 417 questionnaires as the most frequently adopted tool, particularly customized designs consisting of 4-12 items.<sup>13</sup> The validity of these tools is also supported by a number of 418 reports highlighting their sensitivity to training and/or match load. <sup>21,22,25,79,80</sup> However, 419 420 the efficacy of these tools is dependent upon a number of theoretical (inter-relations 421 between the measure, social environment and outcomes) and practical factors that need to 422 be addressed within the applied sports setting.<sup>20</sup>

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424 Research to date has mainly examined the sensitivity of prospective fatigue 425 monitoring tools to previous training and match load. Future work is required to 426 examine the degree to which a fatigue measure or change in fatigue measure promotes 427 subsequent changes in a relevant anchor such as performance, illness and injury. This 428 represents a move towards establishing the MCID for fatigue measures and in doing so align with approaches adopted in clinical practice <sup>71</sup> as outlined earlier in this 429 430 review. From a performance perspective, establishing pre-training or pre-match 431 MCID for fatigue measures would theoretically offer an indication on the quality of the external output that might be produced. <sup>23</sup> This would provide coaches with the 432 433 ability to make adjustments to the scheduled training or rotate the players from a 434 match perspective. However, application to match-play is unlikely to be feasible due 435 to the high inherent variability of match-play physical performance in team sports. 436 <sup>11,70</sup> The use of more 'closed loop' sport-specific training drills where players may 437 possibly perform more consistent physical outputs may afford an opportunity to 438 establish pre-training MCID for fatigue measures.

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440 There is now a growing body of literature highlighting links between increased athlete 441 loading (competition and training loads) and the incidence of soft-tissue injury and to 442 a lesser extent illness in team sports (see Drew et al., 2016 for a review of recent 443 work). <sup>81</sup> Furthermore, internal loading may offer more accurate predictions of injury 444 risk than measures typically used to estimate the external load. <sup>7</sup> In these studies, internal load was largely estimated by multiplying total training or match session 445 duration with session ratings of perceived exertion.<sup>82</sup> Future work, is required to 446 447 examine whether other measures of the internal load/fatigue status of the athlete may 448 further enhance the precision of these estimates. For example, a number of studies have examined the relationship between psychological stress and injury in sports <sup>83,84</sup> 449 450 though only few reports have examined these relationships in team sports using athlete self-report assessments commonly used in practice. <sup>85,86</sup> By examining the role 451 452 of various prospective measures of fatigue status we may enhance our ability to 453 observe changes in the athletes status, which may predispose them to illness and/or 454 injury. Although, fatigue experienced by team sport athletes is multifactorial in nature 455 and one single measure is insufficient in explaining athlete status. A combination of 456 subjective and objective measures is, therefore, more likely in order to quantify 457 fatigue status in elite team sport athletes.

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- 462 Summary
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464 Considering the increase in competition demands in elite team sports over recent 465 years, the quantification of fatigue status has gained popularity amongst researchers and practitioners. Since maximal physical performance assessments (sprints, repeated 466 467 sprints and maximal voluntary contractions) traditionally used to quantify recovery 468 and fatigue in athletes are unsuitable in team sport environments due to their 469 exhaustive and time-consuming nature, recent literature has demonstrated that quick, 470 simple and non-invasive tools such as ASRM, ANS HR-indices, JROM and jump 471 protocols which have been shown to be sensitive to changes in training load. 472 Practitioners utilising such measures must consider the MCID when interpreting 473 results to identify true sensitivity in athlete fatigue status and in turn, informed 474 decisions alongside key stakeholders in elite team sport environments. This review 475 has outlined the potential measures which may be used as a starting point by 476 practitioners to monitor fatigue status in team sport athletes, however, future work is 477 required to investigate the relationships between these measures of fatigue and global 478 anchors such as performance, injury and illness.

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