

1 **Multiple measures are needed to quantify training loads in professional rugby league.**

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3 **Abstract**

4 To investigate the effect of training mode (conditioning and skills) on multivariate training  
5 load relationships in professional rugby league via principal component analysis. Four  
6 measures of training load (internal: heart rate exertion index, session rating of perceived  
7 exertion; external: PlayerLoad™, individualised high-speed distance) were collected from 23  
8 professional male rugby league players over the course of one 12-wk preseason period.  
9 Training was categorised by mode (skills or conditioning) and then subjected to a principal  
10 component analysis. Extraction criteria were set at an eigenvalue of greater than 1. Modes  
11 that extracted more than 1 principal component were subject to a Varimax rotation. Skills  
12 extracted 1 principal component, explaining 57% of the variance. Conditioning extracted 2  
13 principal components (1<sup>st</sup>: internal; 2<sup>nd</sup>: external), explaining 85% of the variance. The  
14 presence of multiple training load dimensions (principal components) during conditioning  
15 training provides further evidence of the influence of training mode on the ability of  
16 individual measures of external or internal training load to capture training variance.  
17 Consequently, a combination of internal- and external- training load measures is required  
18 during certain training modes.

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26 **Introduction**

27 To develop the wide range of physical qualities needed to succeed in professional rugby  
28 league competition, multiple modes are prescribed such as skills and traditional conditioning  
29 training [16, 27, 35]. Theoretically, the frequency, intensity and duration of the activities (e.g.  
30 sprinting, accelerations, collisions) performed by players during these modes (i.e. the external  
31 load) induce multiple psycho-physiological and mechanical responses termed the internal  
32 load [22, 33]. For a given external load, both the magnitude and type of internal load is likely  
33 to vary between players due to differences in individual characteristics which result in  
34 multiple fitness and fatigue effects and ultimately varied training outcomes [14, 22].  
35 Understanding these dose-response relationships are therefore important to balance the  
36 promotion of adaptations whilst minimising negative outcomes such as injury [9]. To ensure  
37 precision of an appropriate training prescription, it is important that practitioners use valid  
38 methods to quantify the internal and external loads placed onto players across all training  
39 modes.

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41 There are numerous measurements to quantify the internal and external training load  
42 including heart rate (HR) based [2, 27, 36], perceptual based (session rating of perceived  
43 exertion [sRPE]) [26, 34], global positioning systems (GPS), [9, 27, 36] and accelerometer  
44 based methods [9, 27, 65]. Methods using HR to quantify the internal load include Banisters'  
45 training impulse (TRIMP) [6] and the individualised TRIMP (iTRIMP) [6, 28, 29, 36] while  
46 those used to determine high-speed distance include both arbitrary [27, 36] and individualised  
47 methods [1] derived from 5 Hz [15], 5 Hz with 15 Hz interpolation [27, 36] and 10 Hz [31]  
48 GPS sampling frequencies. To infer validity, typical research designs involve correlating a  
49 practical training load method with a single criterion which is selected to represent the true  
50 value of the measurement [3, 19, 22, 27, 32]. As this is typically conducted in ecologically

51 valid environments, the selection of the criterion method is constrained by its ability to be  
52 measured in this setting and therefore, it is also important to evaluate the extent to which the  
53 criterion reflects the true value of the measurement [19]. Methods such as radar guns are  
54 commonly adopted to assess the validity of external load methods such as GPS to measure  
55 speed [32] whilst HR-based measurements are frequently adopted as a sole criterion method  
56 to validate other internal load methods due to the difficulty in collecting additional  
57 physiological markers in the field [3, 27, 22]. For example, the validity of sRPE is inferred  
58 due to the large within-individual correlations found with Edward's TRIMP which have been  
59 found to range from  $r = 0.54$  [95% confidence interval (CI): 0.14 to 0.86] to 0.78 [0.45 to  
60 0.92] [22].

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62 Whilst we can be confident that a radar gun represents the true speed value, given the multi-  
63 faceted nature of training load described previously [33], it is likely that HR-based criterion  
64 measurements represent only an aspect of the actual internal load imposed. Therefore, the  
65 validity of adopting a single training load measure remains unclear. Given these difficulties,  
66 it is regularly suggested that a more robust approach to infer validity is to adopt the changes  
67 in training outcomes, such as measures of fatigue [30], injury incidence [14] or physical  
68 qualities [2, 28, 29], as the criterion method. As the theoretical internal load governs training-  
69 induced adaptations, the quantification of this construct is preferred for these load-outcome  
70 relationships [21]. However, external load methods have also been found to possess dose-  
71 response relationships with training outcomes. For example, total-distance ( $r = 0.86$  [95% CI:  
72 0.70 to 0.95]) and high-speed distance ( $r = 0.76$  [95% CI: 0.51 to 0.91]) were associated with  
73 the changes in creatine kinase concentration 24-hours after professional rugby league match  
74 play [30]. Therefore, it is likely that both external and internal training load methods can  
75 contribute information to the outcomes of training, the extent to which is likely to change

76 between modes of training [27, 36]. However, in most research investigating load-outcome  
77 relationships, single training load variables are used and there is limited consideration of  
78 whether a multivariate approach is needed to represent the training load and how his changes  
79 across modes of training.

80

81 In our previous study [36], we examined the influence of training mode on the multivariate  
82 relationships of external and internal training load measures in professional rugby league  
83 players across two 12-week pre-season periods. We reported that a combination of internal  
84 load (iTRIMP, sRPE) and external load (Bodyload™, total impacts and high-speed distance)  
85 explained a greater proportion of the variance during certain training modes (skills, speed,  
86 strongman and wrestle) when compared to either internal or external load measures alone.  
87 Moreover, the training load measures contributing to each principal component (PC) changed  
88 depending on the training mode. For example, during skills training the external load  
89 measures explained 48% of the variance with internal load measures explaining a further  
90 20%. However, during speed training it was the opposite, with internal load measures  
91 explaining 46% of the variance and external load measures explaining a further 21%. This  
92 strongly suggests that a single external or internal load measure is unable to capture all  
93 training-related stress across all training types. Alterations in the strength of the relationships  
94 between training load measures have also been shown in previous studies [27].  
95 Using a single method to quantifying the training load therefore is likely to be suboptimal in  
96 representing the multifaceted nature of the load imposed during certain training modes. For  
97 certain training modes, the variability in external and internal load measurements might be  
98 similar and could be used interchangeably. Equally, in other training modes a combination of  
99 load measures could be more sensitive in highlighting the training stress elicited. However,  
100 despite previous findings [36], differences in microtechnology could confound the findings

101 including both GPS sampling frequency which influences the validity and reliability of high-  
102 speed movement quantification [24, 31] and accelerometer reliability and validity [7, 26]. In  
103 addition, contextual influences such as different players, coaching philosophies and team  
104 periodisation could all influence the conclusions drawn. As a result, due to the paucity of  
105 current information available detailing the multivariate relationships between training load  
106 measures and how these changes across modes of training, plus the wide range of methods  
107 used to quantify both theoretical constructs in practice, a replication study is warranted to  
108 increase the generalisability of the findings [5, 23].

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110 Therefore, the aim of the current study was to replicate our previous study [36], while using  
111 different but commonly utilised methods to represent the external (PlayerLoad™ and  
112 individualised high-speed-distance) and internal (sRPE and heart-rate-exertion-index [HREI])  
113 training load, together with a shorter training period, and with players competing at a  
114 different standard of competition. For the current study we focused on two of the most  
115 frequently utilised training modes in rugby league (skills and traditional conditioning) [27,  
116 36] and aimed to determine the structure of the interrelationships among measures of training  
117 load to define common underlying dimensions in the variables via a principal component  
118 analysis (PCA). PCA is a mathematical technique used to reduce the dimensionality of any  
119 given data set that consists of a number of highly correlated variables, while still keeping as  
120 much of the variation in the data set as possible [11, 25]. We hypothesised that the different  
121 external load structures of skills and conditioning training would influence the strength of the  
122 variance explained by an individual training load measure. If multiple principal components  
123 (PC) are extracted this would suggest an individual measure is unable to account for the  
124 variance of multiple measures. Within the PCA, by including only four training load

125 variables (two external and two internal) rather than the many more available to practitioners,  
126 we were able to provide the most conservative test to this hypothesis.

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## 128 **Methods**

### 129 **Participants**

130 Twenty-three professional rugby league players from the same Kingston Press Rugby League  
131 Championship team participated in this study. The Championship is the 2<sup>nd</sup> highest level of  
132 rugby league competition in England. The participants had the following characteristics (24 ±  
133 3 years, 184.8 ± 6.7 cm, body mass 95.4 ± 8.6 kg). The study conforms with international  
134 ethical standards [18] was granted ethics approval by the Department of Sport, Health and  
135 Exercise Science human research ethics committee at The University of Hull. Written  
136 informed consent was obtained from each player before the start of the study.

137

### 138 **Design**

139 The study used a longitudinal observational research design in which training load data were  
140 collected during one 12-week preseason preparatory period during the 2014-2015 Kingston  
141 Press Rugby League Championship season.

142

### 143 **Methodology**

144 Training load was quantified via sRPE and microtechnology which incorporated heart rate,  
145 GPS and tri-axial accelerometer during each training session. Prior to the commencement of  
146 the study, all players were familiarised with these methods. The training program was  
147 prescribed by the club's coaching staff during the course of the study. During the study  
148 period, players typically participated in 3 field-based training sessions per week which  
149 included conditioning (Monday) and skills (Tuesday and Friday) training. Other field-based

150 training modes (e.g. speed, small-sided-games) were prescribed sporadically (Thursday)  
151 within the study period and so only modes identified as skills or conditioning were included  
152 in the analysis, and were defined as:

153 Skills: Focus on enhancing individual rugby league skills and team technical-tactical  
154 strategies

155 Conditioning: focus on linear- and shuttle-running which aimed to improve players  
156 capabilities to tolerate high-intensity running bouts. The distances for these running drills  
157 were prescribed for each player based on a percentage of the velocity they achieved during  
158 the 30-15 Intermittent Fitness Test (30-15<sub>IFT</sub>).

159

160 sRPE was calculated for each player during the study period using the method of Foster et al.  
161 [12] Exercise intensity for sRPE was determined using the Borg CR-10 scale [6]. sRPE was  
162 then multiplied by the training-session duration to calculate the sRPE training load in  
163 arbitrary units (AU). All players who participated in the study had been familiarised with the  
164 RPE scale, including the interpretation of exertion in relation to the verbal anchors placed on  
165 the scale. sRPE for each player were collected ~30 minutes after the completion of each  
166 training session by the lead researcher into a custom-made spreadsheet with no third-party  
167 observation present throughout the study period.

168

169 Manufacturer-derived heart rate exertion index (HREI) was used to calculate the heart rate-  
170 derived internal load. This method follows the same principles as Edwards<sup>22</sup> but utilises  
171 arbitrary exponential weighting factors:

172 (Duration in Zone 1 x 1) + (Duration in Zone 2 x 1.20) + (Duration in Zone 3 x 1.50) +

173 (Duration in Zone 4 x 2.20) + (Duration in Zone 5 x 4.50)

174 Where zone 1 = 50-59% of  $HR_{max}$ , zone 2 = 60-69%  $HR_{max}$ , zone 3 = 70-79%  $HR_{max}$ , Zone 4  
175 = 80-89%  $HR_{max}$  and zone 5 = 90-100%  $HR_{max}$

176 HR was measured at 5 s intervals during each training session using Polar HR straps (T31  
177 coded, Polar, Oy, Finland) that transmitted continuously to the GPS device (Optimeye X4,  
178 Catapult Innovations, Scoresby, Victoria).

179

180 External training load measures of the distance run above a player's individualised high  
181 speed threshold (high-speed distance) and PlayerLoad™ were collected concurrently during  
182 each session using 10 Hz GPS devices with in-built 100 Hz tri-axial accelerometer (Optimeye  
183 X4, Catapult Innovations, Scoresby, Victoria). PlayerLoad™ was chosen as an overall  
184 measure of external load experienced by players that also includes accelerations and  
185 collision-based activity [13] which are key considerations within rugby league [15].

186 PlayerLoad™ is a modified vector magnitude and is expressed as the square root of the sum  
187 of the squared instantaneous rate of change in acceleration in each of the three axes (X, Y,  
188 and Z) and divided by 100. PlayerLoad™ data were expressed in arbitrary units (AU).

189 PlayerLoad™ has previously been shown to possess acceptable reliability [7]. High-speed-  
190 distance was chosen as an external load measure to represent the individualised “high-  
191 intensity” running demands experienced during training for each player [1]. In order to  
192 individualise each player's demarcated high-speed threshold, players completed the 30-15<sub>IFT</sub>.

193 The 30-15<sub>IFT</sub> consisted of 30 s shuttle runs interspersed with 15 s passive recovery periods as  
194 per previously described methods [8]. Speed was set at 8 km·h<sup>-1</sup> for the initial 30 s run after  
195 which speed was increased by 0.5 km·h<sup>-1</sup> every 30 s [8]. Players were required to run back  
196 and forth between two lines that were set 40 m apart at a speed governed by an audio signal.

197 The speed (km·h<sup>-1</sup>) achieved by each player during the last successfully completed stage of  
198 the test was recorded as their maximal running speed during the test and subsequently used to



199 demarcate their high-speed threshold. The mean (SD) speed achieved during the 30-15<sub>IFT</sub> was  
200  $19.6 \pm 0.6 \text{ km}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ .

201

## 202 **Statistical Analysis**

203 Prior to performing a principal component analysis (PCA), training load data were centred  
204 and scaled with the Pearson correlation matrix was visually inspected to determine the  
205 factorability of the data for PCA [34]. The suitability of the data was assessed using the  
206 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and the Bartlett test of sphericity  
207 [4]. KMO ( $\sim$ chi-square) values were 0.60 (284) and 0.59 (562) for conditioning and skills  
208 training. A KMO value of 0.5 or above has been suggested as a threshold, above which the  
209 data set is suitable for PCA [17, 25, 36]. Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant for both  
210 training modes ( $P < 0.001$ ). The four training load measures (HREI, PlayerLoad<sup>TM</sup>, high-  
211 speed distance, sRPE) were subjected to a PCA for each training mode using a prior  
212 communality estimate of less than 1. The stages involved in the PCA method are deletion of  
213 the mean, calculation of the covariance matrix of the data, determination of the eigenvalues  
214 and eigenvectors of the covariance matrix, and rotation of the original data onto a coordinate  
215 system spanned by the eigenvectors of the covariance matrix [11]. A principal-axis method  
216 was used to extract the PC. As the number of PC will always equal the number the number of  
217 original inputted variables, PC with an eigenvalue of less than 1 (Kaiser criterion) were not  
218 retained for extraction [25]. This is due to the notion that any component displaying an  
219 eigenvalue greater than 1.00 is accounting for a greater proportion of variance than that  
220 contributed by any 1 variable. Varimax rotation was performed when two or more PC were  
221 retained and with the goal of making the component loadings more easily interpretable. For  
222 each extracted PC, only the original variables that possessed a PC loading of greater than

223 0.70 were retained for interpretation [17, 37]. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences  
224 (SPSS, version 20.0 for Windows, SPSS Inc, Chicago, IL) was used to conduct the analysis.

225

## 226 **Results**

227 A total of 640 individual training sessions were observed during the study with 23 players  
228 providing  $28 \pm 5$  sessions each. Table 1 highlights the number of sessions and mean training  
229 loads for conditioning and skills training.

230

231 **\*\*INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE\*\***

232

233 Table 2 displays the PCA, including eigenvalues for each principal component during skills  
234 and conditioning training and the total variance explained by each principal component for  
235 each training mode. There was a single principal component identified for skills training and  
236 two principal components identified for conditioning training, explaining 56.62% and  
237 85.44% of the variance respectively. Pearson correlations including 95% confidence intervals  
238 between the training load methods for the two training modes are presented in Table 3.

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240 **\*\*\*INSERT TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE\*\*\***

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242 **\*\*\*INSERT TABLE 3 ABOUT HERE\*\*\***

243

## 244 **Discussion**

245 The main finding of the study is the identification of multiple dimensions (two principal  
246 components) in one of the modes of training, thereby confirming the results of our previous  
247 study [36]. In the current study, we identified one and two PC during skills and conditioning

248 training, respectively. These findings demonstrate further evidence that a single training load  
249 measure, either external or internal, is unable to capture the variance of multiple measures  
250 across different modes of training in professional rugby league players. This has important  
251 implications for training load monitoring. Within a concurrent training programme, the load  
252 imposed during each mode contributes to the accumulation of load across acute (e.g. 7-day  
253 rolling mean) and chronic (e.g. 28-day rolling mean) training periods [14]. As single training  
254 load methods are commonly adopted to investigate load-outcome relationships such as injury  
255 [20] and changes in fitness [2, 28, 29], further research is required to determine whether a  
256 multivariate training load model (using methods such as PCA) provide a better representation  
257 of load for such investigations. This is important as despite the current and previous findings  
258 [35] only training load methods, including either singular or multiple measurements, that  
259 show a dose-response relationship with training outcomes such as changes in fitness or  
260 performance should be used [2, 27, 28]. Ideally, this should involve a wide range of the  
261 currently utilised training load methods that are available to examine the most influential  
262 individual training load variables that contribute to a multivariate training load model.  
263 More specifically, in our previous study [36] we identified a single PC during conditioning  
264 training, suggesting that the training load measures were providing similar information.  
265 However, in the current study we identified two PC during conditioning with the first PC  
266 including HREI, sRPE and PlayerLoad™. High-speed distance, individualised based on the  
267 maximal speed achieved during the 30-15 IFT, explained additional variance during  
268 conditioning as it was the only variable to provide a meaningful component loading on the  
269 second PC. In our previous study [36], an arbitrary ( $>15 \text{ km}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ ) high-speed distance method  
270 was unable to account for additional variance, as only a single PC was identified during  
271 conditioning. As the major aim of conditioning training is to provide a high-intensity running  
272 stimulus, the speed in which players reach ‘high-intensity’ will likely differ between players

273 [1]. Therefore, the use of an individualised approach would provide practitioners with  
274 additional information of the load prescribed during this mode. Additionally, differences in  
275 GPS sampling rate could have also influenced the findings, as greater validity of high-speed  
276 running quantification has been reported for the 10 Hz MinimaxX GPS devices when  
277 compared to the GPSports SPI Pro X 15 Hz devices used in our previous study [15].  
278 The presence of one PC during skills training suggests that a single training load variable  
279 accounts for a meaningful proportion of the variance (56.6%) of four training load measures  
280 during this mode. As only HREI (0.78) and PlayerLoad™ (0.92) demonstrated meaningful (>  
281 0.70) component loadings with the extracted PC, the methods could be used interchangeably  
282 to represent the variance of the four training load variables during skills training. However,  
283 the presence of a single PC conflicts with our previous findings [36]. Previously, we reported  
284 that external training load measures (Bodyload™, total impacts, high-speed distance)  
285 accounted for the greatest proportion of the total variance (48%) with internal load measures  
286 (iTRIMP, sRPE) contributing an additional 21%. Differences in the methods used to quantify  
287 the heart rate TRIMP could explain some of the discrepancies between the results. The use of  
288 arbitrary heart rate zones and weightings within the HREI method have previously been  
289 criticised [2] as they do not reflect the individualised response to exercise [1]. The iTRIMP  
290 method, adopted in the previous study [36], is based on each individual's relationship  
291 between the fractional elevation in heart rate and blood lactate concentration, with each  
292 individual heart rate data point recorded during each training bout weighted according to this  
293 relationship. This method has previously shown dose-response validity with changes in  
294 fitness over a given training period in both endurance [27] and team sports players [2, 28]. It  
295 is also important to consider that whilst only 1 PC was eligible for extraction during skills  
296 training in the current study, the total variance explained (56.6%) by this PC leaves 43.4% of  
297 the total variance unexplained between the four training load measures. The Kaiser criterion

298 (eigenvalue > than 1) is considered a conservative approach to extracting meaningful PC [17]  
299 and is one of multiple criteria that can be adopted [37] which include the assessment of the  
300 scree plot [37] and/or extraction of the number of PC that equal a set percentage of total  
301 variance explained [17]. Therefore, it is possible that the second PC (Table 2) could explain  
302 additional meaningful variance and therefore, multiple measures could actually be required  
303 during skills. A limitation of the current study is that due to the variety of skill and tactical  
304 qualities needed to succeed in rugby league competition, skills training will involve a wide  
305 range of activities that will subject players to different compositions of external load  
306 intensities (e.g. walk, run, sprint, collisions) between sessions including collision activity.  
307 Therefore, as skills training is prescribed frequently within training periods [27, 35], future  
308 research should determine the relationships between training load methods (either single or  
309 combined) and acute training outcomes such as changes in fatigue markers [30, 35] during  
310 skills training and consider the influence of collision based activity on those relationships to  
311 further elucidate their validity during this training mode. Finally, despite the discrepancies  
312 between the current and previous results [36], the findings highlight the importance of  
313 investigations that replicate previous research findings [23].

314

### 315 **Practical Applications**

- 316 • Questions the use of a single measure when making decisions of the load imposed  
317 onto players.
- 318 • Consider the influence that the training mode has on the capability of individual  
319 methods used to reflect the actual load imposed during that training session.
- 320 • Consider measuring the training load using combinations of external and internal  
321 load. During conditioning, it appears one of either PlayerLoad™, HREI or sRPE plus  
322 individualised high-speed-distance should be adopted.

323 **Conclusions**

324 The current study has shown that the training mode (conditioning and skills) influences the  
325 capability of a single training load measure to explain the variation in multiple measures of  
326 the external and internal training load in professional rugby league players. This suggests  
327 practitioners shouldn't rely on a single measure to inform decisions regarding the load  
328 imposed onto players and should use both an internal and external training load measure to  
329 monitor their prescription of training. The findings provide further evidence that a  
330 multivariate training load model that combines internal and external training load measures  
331 should be considered. However, further research is needed to establish how this can be  
332 implemented in practice and whether this provides a better model of load-outcome  
333 relationships compared to a single measure.

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Table 1. Mean  $\pm$  SD training load measures and session durations during each training mode.

<b>Training Mode</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>Duration (min)</b>	<b>HREI (AU)</b>	<b>sRPE (AU)</b>	<b>PlayerLoad<sup>TM</sup> (AU)</b>	<b>HSD (m)</b>
Skills	448	40 $\pm$ 24	100 $\pm$ 69	309 $\pm$ 183	351 $\pm$ 150	202 $\pm$ 265
Conditioning	192	25 $\pm$ 12	59 $\pm$ 32	183 $\pm$ 345	232 $\pm$ 81	599 $\pm$ 455

sRPE: Session rating of perceived exertion; HREI: Heart rate exertion index; HSD: High-speed distance

**Table 2.** Results of the PCA, showing the Eigenvalue, percentage (%) of variance explained and the cumulative % of variance explained by each Principal Component (PC) for skills and conditioning. Also showing the unrotated (1 PC extracted) or rotated (> 1 PC extracted) training load component loadings for each PC that were extracted. Loadings that met interpretation criteria (> 0.70) are highlighted in bold.

	Principal Component			
	1	2	3	4
<b>Skills</b>				
Eigenvalue	<b>2.27</b>	0.80	0.72	0.22
% of Variance	<b>56.62</b>	20.03	17.92	5.42
Cumulative Variance %	<b>56.62</b>	76.66	94.58	100.00
<b>Unrotated Component Loadings</b>				
HREI	<b>0.78</b>	-	-	-
sRPE	0.65	-	-	-
Playerload	<b>0.92</b>	-	-	-
HSD	0.62	-	-	-
<b>Conditioning</b>				
Eigenvalue	<b>2.24</b>	<b>1.18</b>	0.32	0.27
% of Variance	<b>56.01</b>	<b>29.42</b>	7.90	6.66
Cumulative Variance %	<b>56.01</b>	<b>85.44</b>	93.34	100.00
<b>Rotated Component Loadings</b>				
HREI	<b>0.89</b>	-0.12	-	-
sRPE	<b>0.90</b>	-0.15	-	-
Playerload	<b>0.80</b>	0.48	-	-
HSD	-0.14	<b>0.96</b>	-	-

sRPE: Session rating of perceived exertion; HREI: Heart rate exertion index; HSD: High-speed distance

**Table 3:** Pearson's product-moment coefficients for each training load measure during skills and conditioning training. Includes 95% Confidence Intervals (CI) for each significant correlation. \* Significant at 0.05 level \*\* Significant at 0.001 level \*\*\* Significant at 0.0001 level Hopkins (2002) qualitative correlation coefficient descriptors: t: trivial (0-0.09), s: small (0.1-0.29), m: moderate (0.3-0.49), l: large (0.7-0.89), vl: very large (0.9-0.99)

	sRPE	95% CI	PlayerLoad™	95% CI	HSD	95% CI
<b>Skills</b>						
HREI	0.30***m	[0.23 to 0.40]	0.72***l	[0.67 to 0.76]	0.22***s	[0.13 to 0.31]
sRPE	1.00	-	0.47***m	[0.39 to 0.54]	0.27***s	[0.18 to 0.35]
PlayerLoad™	-	-	1.00	-	0.47***m	[0.39 to 0.54]
<b>Conditioning</b>						
HREI	0.73***l	[0.66 to 0.79]	0.55***l	[0.44 to 0.64]	-0.19***s	[-0.32 to -0.05]
sRPE	1.00	-	0.56***l	[0.45 to 0.65]	-0.21***s	[-0.34 to -0.07]
PlayerLoad™	-	-	1.00	-	0.24***s	[0.10 to 0.37]

sRPE: Session rating of perceived exertion; HREI: Heart rate exertion index; HSD: High-speed distance