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19 **Abstract**

20 **Background:** The day of the week with a greater external load in soccer training is  
21 match day (MD), showing starters ( $> 60$  min per match) higher levels of physical  
22 fitness and seasonal high-intensity loading. Therefore, determining training strategies  
23 to reduce these differences are necessary. The aim of this study was to analyze and  
24 compare the external load of different training compensatory strategies on match  
25 external load in nonstarter female soccer players. **Hypothesis:** the strategy combining  
26 small sided games (SSG) and running based drills (RBD) would reproduce match  
27 demands, since RBD leads to higher High intensity distance and SSG leads to a greater  
28 number of accelerations and decelerations.

29 **Study design[Au: This is not design.]:** Training and match external load of fourteen  
30 female players belonged to the same reserve squad of a Spanish First Division Club  
31 (Liga Reto Iberdrola) were registered.

32 **Level of Evidence:** Level 4

33 **Methods:** On the first session after the match (MD+1), nonstarter players ( $< 60$  min in  
34 the match) performed one of the three different compensatory strategies: RBD, SSG,  
35 and a mixed intervention combining the previous strategies (RBD+SSG). Starter  
36 players carried out a recovery session.

37 **Results:** A marked difference in load was observed between different compensatory  
38 training strategies and MD. While RBD showed greater high-intensity and sprint  
39 distances and lower acceleration, SSG showed less high-intensity and sprint distances  
40 and peak velocity and greater acceleration, and RBD+SSG registered lower  
41 accelerations, in comparison to MD. In addition, nonstarters covered higher high-  
42 intensity and sprint distances in RBD and higher accelerations in SSG.

43 **Conclusions:** RBD and SSG compensatory strategies could be recommended to  
44 nonstarters female soccer players during the MD+1 in order to compensate the match  
45 external load deficits.

46 **Clinical Relevance:** This study provides comprehensive information on the  
47 compensatory exercises of female soccer players, which can be useful for strength and  
48 conditioning coaches when developing recovery strategies during microcycle.

49 **Key words:** Compensatory training, women, football, load.

50 **Introduction**

51 Women's soccer has increased in popularity at all levels <sup>33</sup> and is experiencing  
52 incredible growth in terms of media impact, competitiveness and physical development  
53 of the players <sup>29</sup>. Proof of this is that in the 2019 Women's World Cup, distances  
54 covered at high intensity (HID, 19-23 km/h) increased by 15%, while the distance  
55 covered in sprinting (SPRD, >25 km/h) increased by approximately 29% <sup>6</sup> in  
56 comparison to the 2015 Women's World Cup. To manage these higher match external  
57 loads, it is necessary to optimize training periodization through the adjustment of  
58 volume and intensity in training sessions within the training microcycle <sup>41</sup>, and apply  
59 training methods that reproduce the match external load. This becomes even more  
60 important with nonstarters players <sup>31,40</sup>.

61 Due to growth in terms of competitiveness, physical development and minutes  
62 played in match day, starters covered more total distance (22%), HID (47%), and SPRD  
63 (74%) that nonstarters, support a greater seasonal load; these players also report a  
64 higher perceived load (29%) <sup>2,25</sup>. Additionally, the main characteristic of starters versus  
65 non-starters is greater participation (i.e. minutes) during competition, allowing them to  
66 accumulate higher physical and physiological loads during the microcycle. Moreover,  
67 it has been demonstrated that match-play is an important stimulus to improve CMJ  
68 performance in starter players in comparison to nonstarters <sup>34</sup>. Jajtner et al. <sup>23</sup> found  
69 that female starter players in the national collegiate female division I presented  
70 improved speed after an 8-week line drill test, with no changes in the nonstarter players.  
71 Therefore, due to potential imbalances between players (starters and nonstarters),  
72 coaches and practitioners need to manage player workloads because these players  
73 participate in matches for different periods <sup>12</sup>. According to the above, it may be  
74 necessary to apply compensatory strategies with nonstarter players in order to  
75 improve/maintain their training status <sup>31</sup>. To achieve this aim, several training strategies

76 (e.g. high-intensity interval, small-sided games or plyometric training) have been  
77 applied in female soccer populations <sup>15,36,38</sup>. However, the impact of these strategies on  
78 training demands, differentiating between starters and nonstarters, has not been  
79 considered in previous studies.

80 Different compensatory training strategies to avoid compromising nonstarter  
81 players' physical performance may be used. Ade et al. <sup>1</sup> observed that soccer players  
82 covered greater distance at high-intensity and sprint in running-based (RBD) compared  
83 with small-sided game (SSG) drills, although more accelerations and decelerations  
84 were registered during SSG. In addition, when nonstarter players were supplemented  
85 with SSG in the first session after a match (MD+1), greater total distance covered,  
86 higher average metabolic power, accelerations and decelerations were recorded, but  
87 high-intensity and sprint qualities were not developed <sup>31</sup>. Therefore, studies analyzing  
88 training strategies that simulate match demands and compensate weekly load for  
89 nonstarter players are necessary, particularly as there are no studies in this area on  
90 female soccer players.

91 The aim of this study was to analyze and compare the external load of different  
92 training compensatory strategies (i.e., RBD, SSG, and a mixed intervention combining  
93 the previous ones) on match external load in nonstarter female soccer players.  
94 Secondly, the microcycle load between nonstarters vs. starters was compared, taking  
95 into account the compensatory strategies applied. Based on previous studies <sup>1,31</sup> we  
96 hypothesized that a strategy combining SSG and RBD would reproduce match  
97 demands, since RBD leads to higher HID, and SSG leads to a greater number of  
98 accelerations and decelerations.

99 **Methods**

100 **Subjects**

101       Fourteen female soccer players (age:  $21.7 \pm 1.7$  years; height:  $164.3 \pm 5.1$  cm;  
102       body mass:  $55.8 \pm 6.9$  kg; and body mass index:  $20.7 \pm 1.6 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$ ) participated in this  
103       study. Data were recorded during the 2020–2021 competitive season during the mid-  
104       season period and all participants belonged to the same reserve team of a Spanish First  
105       Division Club (Liga Reto Iberdrola). Goalkeepers were excluded from the subsequent  
106       analysis due to their specific role. Players who had suffered an injury in the previous  
107       two months and who did not complete all of the intervention sessions were not included  
108       in the analysis. Before beginning the study, participants were informed of the study's  
109       objectives, risks, and benefits before they signed informed consent forms. The study  
110       was conducted according to the requirements of the Declaration of Helsinki and was  
111       approved by the ethics committee of \*\*\*for blinded purposes\*\*\* code: 005-2021.

112       Design

113       This study compared the training load generated by three different interventions  
114       (RBD, SSG and RBD + SSG) in nonstarters. During MD+1 the female soccer players  
115       were assigned to a Recovery Group (starters) or a Compensatory Group (nonstarters)  
116       according to the minutes played in the previous match (Recovery Group =  $>60$  minutes;  
117       Compensatory Group  $<60$  minutes) <sup>31</sup>. The intervention consisted of supplementing  
118       nonstarter female soccer players with three different training strategies (RBD, SSG, or  
119       RBD + SSG), each performed independently on MD+1 for three consecutive weeks.  
120       Each week of the intervention period was composed of four training sessions (i.e.,  
121       MD+1: the first session after the previous match without a recovery day, MD-3, MD-  
122       2, and MD-1: three, two, and one session before the next match respectively), and an  
123       official match-day (MD) session. The usual distribution of the week during the  
124       competitive season in the 3 previous months was as follows: recovery or compensatory,  
125       endurance, tactical and activation in MD+1, MD-3 and MD-1 respectively <sup>8</sup>. During  
126       MD+1 intervention period the starters performed a recovery session (MD+1) consisting

127 of a 15-min technical drill followed by a 4 vs. 4 SSG on a surface of  $10 \times 15$  m for 8-  
128 min, finishing with regeneration exercises (e.g., foam roller, mobility). Measures of  
129 external load and the rating of perceived exertion (sRPE) were collected during each  
130 session, as well as a wellness questionnaire before the MD-3 session. Training sessions  
131 were conducted on the same playing surface (third-generation artificial turf) at the same  
132 time (7:30 p.m.). Matches were played on three pitches with similar dimensions (100  
133  $\times 64$  m) and artificial surfaces.

134 Procedures

135 *Compensatory strategies.* In addition to the normal training, nonstarters  
136 completed one of the following interventions each consecutive week: RBD, in which  
137 players performed a speed endurance drill consisting of  $2 \times 6 \times 20 sprints with  
138 90-s of active recovery and after 5-min of recovery a repeated sprint drill, consisting  
139 of  $2 \times 5 \times 25$ -m sprints followed by a goal shoot with 25-s of passive recovery. In SSG,  
140 players performed a 4 vs. 4 SSG ( $25 \times 20$ -m, individual interaction space =  $62.5 \text{ m}^2$ )  
141 consisting of 3 bouts of 4-min separated by 90-s of passive recovery and 4 vs. 4 with  
142 goalkeepers ( $20 \times 15$  m) consisting of 2 bouts of 8-min and 120-s passive recovery. In  
143 RBD+SSG (mixed intervention), players performed a combination of parts of both  
144 strategies: first a repeated sprint drill consisting of  $2 \times 5 \times 25$ -m with 25-s of recovery  
145 between repetitions and 5-min between sets, and second after 5-min of recovery the  
146 same small game that in the SSG strategy [4 vs. 4 SSG ( $25 \times 20$ -m, individual  
147 interaction space =  $62.5 \text{ m}^2$ ) consisting of 3 bouts of 4-min separated by 90-s of passive  
148 recovery].$

149 *External load quantification.* External load was recorded individually for each  
150 player using an 18-Hz Global Positioning System (GPS) with an integrated 100-Hz  
151 triaxial accelerometer (WIMU PRO, RealTrack Systems, Almería, Spain). This  
152 technology has previously been used in soccer research on activity-demand profiles

153 <sup>20,35</sup> and reported high levels of validity and reliability (%TEM: 1.47)<sup>5</sup>. The GPS units  
154 (70 g; 81 × 45 × 16 mm) were activated 15 min before the start of each session in  
155 accordance with the manufacturer's recommendations, and were harnessed in a tight-  
156 fitting vest worn by the female soccer players during the experimental study. To avoid  
157 inter-unit variability, each player wore their assigned unit in all the training sessions  
158 and matches<sup>5</sup>. Following each training session and match, GPS data were downloaded  
159 onto a personal computer using the specific software package (WIMU SPRO, Almería,  
160 Spain) and exported for further analysis. Absolute (meters: TD) and relative (meter per  
161 minute: RD) values for total distance, high-intensity distance (HID  $\geq 19.0 \text{ km}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ ),  
162 sprint distance (SPR  $\geq 23.0 \text{ km}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ ), high intensity acceleration (ACC  $> 3 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-2}$ ), high  
163 intensity deceleration (DCC  $> -3.0 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-2}$ ), and peak velocity (PV) were recorded. These  
164 are similar ranges to those used in previous studies with female soccer players<sup>7</sup>. The  
165 average number of satellites registering data during the measurements was  $10.1 \pm 1.0$   
166 and horizontal dilution of precision was 0.96.

167 *Internal load and wellness quantification.* A 0-10 category ratio scale was used  
168 to register players' perceived effort 30 min after each training session<sup>17</sup>. Furthermore,  
169 each individual sRPE value was multiplied by the training session duration to quantify  
170 players' training load [20]. All participants were familiar with the category ratio scale  
171 as they use it regularly in their training sessions and matches. In addition, the female  
172 soccer players completed a wellness questionnaire each morning on MD-3. The items  
173 of the questionnaire included sleep quality, stress, fatigue, and muscle soreness on a 7-  
174 point Likert scale<sup>19,39</sup>. Players rated on the scale how much they agree (1-strongly  
175 agree) or disagree (7-strongly disagree). The sum of the four ratings was used to  
176 calculate Hooper's index<sup>19,39</sup>.

177 Statistical Analysis

178 Results are presented as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation (SD). Normality was  
179 verified using Shapiro–Wilk’s test. A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare  
180 all studied variables among the training strategies (RBD, SSG, and RBD+SSG) and  
181 MD. Pairwise comparison was performed using Bonferroni’s post hoc test. In addition,  
182 an independent *t*-test was used to analyze the external load differences among starters  
183 and nonstarters in each training microcycle and training session. The standardized  
184 difference or effect size (ES, 90% confidence limits) in the selected variables was  
185 calculated using the Cohen’s d with values of  $<0.2$  (trivial),  $\geq0.2$  and  $0.49$  (small),  $\geq0.5$   
186 and  $<0.79$  (medium) and  $\geq0.8$  (large) <sup>11</sup>. Significance level was set at  $p < 0.05$ .  
187 Statistical analysis was conducted using SPSS version 25.0.

188 **Results**

189 Table 1 presents the results of the external load of each intervention and match  
190 day. In the SSG and SSG+RBD interventions, players covered significantly ( $p < 0.05$ )  
191 less RD than MD (ES = 3.9 and 4.6 respectively). In RBD, players covered significantly  
192 ( $p < 0.05$ ) more absolute and relative HID and SPRD than MD (ES = 3.9 and 2.0  
193 respectively). Less ( $p < 0.05$ ) HID and SPRD was covered than MD in the SSG (ES =  
194 4.1 and 1.6 respectively). However, in the RBD+SSG, similar HID and higher ( $p <$   
195 0.05) SPRD was covered than MD (ES = 1.1). Only the SSG intervention reached a  
196 similar ACC to the MD (ES = 1.1). In RBD and RBD+SSG players significantly ( $p <$   
197 0.05) covered more HID and SPRD and reach more PV than in SSG.

198 \*\*\*Table 1 near here\*\*\*

199 When RBD was performed, nonstarter covered significantly more HID &  
200 SPRD and less ( $p < 0.05$ ) total ACC and DCC than starters (Table 2). Nonstarters  
201 covered a lesser ( $p < 0.05$ ) TD and ACC than starter when SSG was performed.  
202 Similarly, a lesser ( $p < 0.05$ ) TD was covered by nonstarters in the RBD+SSG.

203 \*\*\*Table 2 near here\*\*\*

204 Nonstarters who performed MD+1 training compensatory strategies showed a  
205 higher ( $p < 0.05$ ) TD (ES = 9.6, 6.8 and 4.2 to RBD, SSGs and RBD+SSG) and PV  
206 (ES = 4.7, 1.6 and 1.9 to RBD, SSGs and RBD+SSG) relative to match load than  
207 starters in all training strategies (Figure 1). In addition, nonstarters performed a higher  
208 ( $p < 0.05$ ) HID and SPRD in RBD (ES = 1.5 and 5.3 respectively), DCC in SSG (ES =  
209 1.7), and HID, SPRD and ACC in RBD+SSG (ES = 1.9, 2.8 and 2.1 respectively). No  
210 significant differences were found between starters and nonstarters in the perception of  
211 wellness in any of the three interventions (~ 14 AU).

212 \*\*\*Figure 1 near here\*\*\*

## 213 **Discussion**

214 This is the first study that compares different compensatory training strategies  
215 with the aim of replicating competition requirements and reducing the gap of weekly  
216 training load between starter and nonstarter female soccer players. Our results showed  
217 that players were exposed to higher total distance, decelerations and sRPE in matches  
218 than in training sessions. However, RBD allowed players to reach higher high-intensity  
219 and sprint distances, boosting the weekly accumulation of these variables. Similarly,  
220 SSG involved a higher weekly accumulation of accelerations.

221 Match-play represents the highest stimulus for professional soccer players <sup>34</sup> in  
222 terms of external and internal load, which seems to be relevant because starters cover  
223 more high-intensity and sprint distance than nonstarter players <sup>2,13</sup>, which may affect  
224 their physical fitness (i.e. adaptations in skeletal muscle) <sup>16</sup>. Therefore, compensatory  
225 strategies should be applied with nonstarter players to maintain or increase their  
226 physical fitness level <sup>31</sup>. Our results showed that female players covered significantly  
227 more HID and SPRD during RBD compared to MD and the other training strategies  
228 (SSG and RBD+SSG). In speed endurance production (1 vs 1, 8 bouts of 30-s with  
229 120-s of recovery) and maintenance (2 vs 2, 8 bouts of 60-s with 60-s of

recovery) running drills, players covered more distance in high-intensity running parameters (i.e., distance at  $19.9\text{--}25.2\text{ km}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ ) compared with the respective SSG <sup>1</sup>. In addition, the RBD+SSG strategy led female soccer players covering significantly more HID than SSG strategy. Possibly this circumstance caused that sRPE in RBD was significantly higher than the SSG strategy. The greater high-intensity and sprint distances covered make RBD a useful tool for high-intensity and sprint training. In this sense, Lupo et al. <sup>26</sup> and Arslan et al. <sup>4</sup> reported that training including a running-based training program could be more effective in improving soccer players' sprint performances (i.e., 20-m) and speed-based conditioning than soccer-specific drills in young soccer players. These results are in agreement with a recent Meta-Analytical Comparison that conclude favoring effect of running-based HIIT over SSG-based interventions in sprinting performance in soccer players <sup>9</sup>.

Sprint ability is required by female soccer players in order to gain an advantage in attacking and defensive situations <sup>14</sup>. In addition, exposure to maximal velocity running reduces the risk of injury to players, <sup>28</sup> so they require regular exposure to periods of sprinting during training environments <sup>18</sup>. RBD and RBD + SSG require similar peak velocity to that demanded on the MD ( $\sim 25\text{ km}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ ), as also reported for youth women soccer players ( $23\text{--}26\text{ km}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ ) <sup>42</sup>. Therefore, these interventions stimulate match peak speed. In addition, RBD presented significant positive effects for linear sprinting and COD performance compared to SSG, <sup>9</sup> so this training intervention could be used on MD+1 and may reduce the differences between starters and nonstarters, aiding the maintenance of squad physical fitness.

Furthermore, our results showed that the SSG compensatory strategy did not stimulate high-intensity actions (i.e. HID or SPRD) in nonstarter players. Köklü et al. <sup>24</sup> showed that, when substituting 60-s of SSG for running drills ( 15 + 15-s), players covered significantly greater distances in high intensity speed zones ( $>14.4\text{ km}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ )

256 regardless of the number of players (3 vs 3 and 4 vs 4). As such, the smaller the  
257 dimensions of the field of play, the greater the technical-tactical requirements and the  
258 ceiling effect that consists of those players with higher physical fitness experiment  
259 lower external load, limit to reach the speed thresholds to register high-intensity  
260 running <sup>22</sup>. This could explain why players do not reach high-intensity values in SSG  
261 similar to match external load and the other two compensatory strategies. The peak  
262 velocity reached in the SSG intervention was significantly lower than that reached in  
263 RBD, RBD + SSG, and MD. Implementing SSG with larger spaces might allow players  
264 to reach a higher speed <sup>21</sup>, cover greater HID <sup>10</sup> and decrease these differences.

265 Players' acceleration ability may help to optimize on-field performance and  
266 prevent injury <sup>30</sup>. The number of accelerations performed by female players in this  
267 study was lower than that reported by previous studies <sup>30,32</sup>. This might be due to the  
268 different levels of the players (elite vs reserve team) or the acceleration threshold  
269 considered ( $>2.26 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-2}$  or  $>2. \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-2}$  vs  $>3 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-2}$ ). Only the SSG intervention  
270 reproduced the number of accelerations that the players experience on MD. These  
271 results are in agreement with Ade et al., <sup>1</sup> who reported that a greater number of  
272 accelerations are performed during sprint endurance production or maintenance  
273 training via SSG than in the respective running drills. Accelerating is more  
274 energetically demanding than constant-velocity movement <sup>37</sup>. Therefore, despite the  
275 greater distance covered at high intensity and sprinting in RBD and RBD+SSG,  
276 coaches and physical trainers should include accelerating in the prescription and  
277 distribution of training tasks.

278 Previous studies reported that microcycle external load is conditioned by the  
279 number of matches <sup>3</sup> or moment of the season <sup>27</sup>, but to our knowledge this is the first  
280 study to analyze the microcycle load between starters and nonstarters according to a  
281 compensatory strategy applied to female soccer players. Anderson et al. <sup>2</sup> did not find

282 differences in the season-long external load between starters and nonstarters,  
283 but starters displayed lower external load than nonstarters in training sessions and more  
284 distance covered in high-intensity zones. Our results show that the compensatory  
285 strategy used with nonstarter players can condition the weekly training load. The  
286 greater HID and SPRD in the RBD compensatory session is not compensated by the  
287 starters' match demands and the remaining weekly training sessions, causing a higher  
288 external load (i.e., HID and SPRD) in the nonstarters' microcycle load. Since training  
289 load predicts in-season injury and illness risk in female youth soccer players<sup>43</sup>, coaches  
290 and practitioners need to take into account the strategy used.

291 Finally, this study has many limitations that should be considered by  
292 practitioners. The comparison between starters and nonstarters in the different weeks  
293 as also some boundaries. As example, in one of those weeks the match performed by  
294 the starters [that has a great variability (may range from 16-30% and more  
295 pronouncedly in high-intensity categories] could influence comparisons in favor of  
296 starters and in other week in favor of the compensatory strategy applied due to the  
297 inherent match-variability. In addition, it was carried out on a sample with specific  
298 characteristics (elite reserve team female soccer players), so we need to be careful when  
299 applying it to players with other characteristics (i.e. age and level) or genders (i.e. male  
300 soccer players). Furthermore, although the intervention length was acceptable, a larger  
301 number of intervention sessions may be necessary to confirm the present results.  
302 Finally, no randomization in compensatory training strategies was established due to  
303 the application of each strategy depends on whether the female soccer player  
304 participates as starter or non-starter in the previous match.

### 305 Conclusion

306 As the match constitutes the main external load of the microcycle nonstarters and  
307 starters players show different total microcycle load, being necessary to implement

308 strategies to equate them. The reduction in the differences obtained in nonstarter  
309 external load depends on the compensatory strategy employed. The RBD + SSG  
310 intervention was one that exposed the players to match-like demands. The  
311 compensatory strategy used in the MD+1 session in nonstarter players can condition  
312 the accumulated load during the microcycle. Given the differences reported between  
313 starters and nonstarters it is necessary to implement strategies for load compensation,  
314 otherwise nonstarter players will present worse fitness levels and have a greater risk of  
315 injury when they compete. Future studies, can analyze different strategies, using SSG  
316 with different format (i.e. spatial, temporal or different number of players) and  
317 implementing SSG with larger spaces might allow players to reach a higher speed and  
318 cover greater HID.

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478

479 Table 1: Comparison of external load of each compensatory strategy and match day.

480

	MD	RBD	SSG	RBD+SSG
TD (m)	8257±1229	5463±149*	4385±300*	3614±277*†
RD (m·min <sup>-1</sup> )	94.6±8.0	90.9±4	69.4±5.0*†	62.9±6.0*†
HID (m)	281.3±99.6	964.5±233.3*	4.9±5.7*†	202.7±28.0†‡
HID (m·min <sup>-1</sup> )	3.5±1.5	16.1±3.9*	0.1±0.1*†	3.5±0.5†‡
SPRD (m)	45.8±41.6	147.1±59.4*	0.0±0.0†*	112.2±57.2*‡
SPRD (m·min <sup>-1</sup> )	0.6±0.5	2.5±0.9*	0.0±0.0†	1.9±0.9*‡
ACC HI (nº)	23.9±5.6	12.0±3.8*	17.0±6.4	16.1±3.7*
DCC HI (nº)	44.9±10.9	10.7±4.2*	28.0±8.9*	20.5±6.2*
ACC HI (nº·min <sup>-1</sup> )	0.3±0.1	0.2±0.1	0.3±0.1	0.3±0.1
DCC HI (nº·min <sup>-1</sup> )	0.5±0.1	0.2±0.1*	0.4±0.1†	0.4±0.1†
PV (km·h <sup>-1</sup> )	24.6±1.9	25.9±1.5	19.5±1.5*†	24.4±1.8‡
sRPE (AU)	555.3±175.3	495.0±57.4	261.0±31.8*†	330.8±31.5*

481

482 MD = Match day; RBD = running basic drills; SSG = small sided games; TD = total  
 483 distance; RD = relative distance; HID = high intensity distance ( $> 19.0 \text{ km} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$ );  
 484 SPRD = sprint distance ( $> 23.0 \text{ km} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$ ); ACC HI = high intensity accelerations ( $> 3$   
 485  $\text{m} \cdot \text{s}^{-2}$ ) DECC HI = high intensity decelerations ( $> -3.0 \text{ m} \cdot \text{s}^{-2}$ ); PV = peak velocity,  
 486 sRPE (session rating of perceived exertion). \* = denotes difference from MD; † =  
 487 denotes difference from RBD; ‡ = denotes difference from SSG.  $p < 0.05$

488 Table 2: Comparison of accumulated external loads during microcycle between starters and nonstarters female soccer players.

489

	RBD			SSG			RBD+SSG		
	S	NS	ES	S	NS	ES	S	NS	ES
TD (m)	25603±2995	22513±1752	1.5	25308±1988	20689±1620*	2.6	25986±1275	21312±2861*	2.2
RD (m·min <sup>-1</sup> )	65.7±5.3	69.6±4.4	0.8	66.6±5.1	66.7±6.4	0.0	69.3±4.9	66.8±8.3	0.4
HID (m)	730.5±281.2	1165.3±521.5*	1.1	545.3±181.5	365.1±209.4	0.9	705.1±272.4	624.5±125.0	0.4
HID (m·min <sup>-1</sup> )	1.9±0.7	3.6±1.6*	1.4	1.5±0.5	1.2±0.7	0.5	2.1±0.7	1.9±0.3	0.4
SPRD (m)	86.8±55.3	170.9±54.7*	1.6	89.4±73.9	55.8±50.5	0.5	137.7±92.5	179.4±96.4	0.5
SPRD (m·min <sup>-1</sup> )	0.35±0.2	0.7±0.4	1.1	0.2±0.2	0.2±0.2	0.0	0.3±0.2	0.6±0.3	1.0
ACC HI (nº)	91.3±24.3	58.6±8.7*	1.9	104.0±22.3	80.2±8.9*	1.4	97.5±22.4	83.6±31.5	0.5
DCC HI (nº)	0.2±0.1	0.2±0.0	0.0	0.3±0.1	0.3±0.0	0.0	0.3±0.1	0.3±0.1	0.0
ACC HI (nº·min <sup>-1</sup> )	136.0±21.2	94.8±25.8*	1.8	146.8±19.9	123.4±43.0	0.7	157.1±21.8	116.0±46.2	1.2
DCC HI (nº·min <sup>-1</sup> )	0.3±0.1	0.3±0.1	0	0.4±0.1	0.4±0.2	0.0	0.4±0.1	0.4±0.1	0.0
PV (km·h <sup>-1</sup> )	21.9±1.0	22.9±0.8	1.1	22.4±0.8	23.0±1.9	0.4	22.6±1.5	22.5±1.2	0.1
sRPE (AU)	1671.1±388.4	1587.4±193.1	0.3	1594.5±369.1	1471.4±254.1	0.4	1708.4±429.0	1518.5±195.1	0.6

490

491

492 RBD = running basic drills; SSG = small sided games; S = Starters; NS = Nonstarters; ES = effect size Cohen's *d*; TD = total distance; RD =  
 493 relative distance; HID = high intensity distance ( $> 19.0 \text{ km}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ ); SPRD = sprint distance ( $> 23.0 \text{ km}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ ); ACC HI = high intensity accelerations ( $>$   
 494  $3 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-2}$ ) DECC HI = high intensity decelerations ( $> -3.0 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-2}$ ); PV = peak velocity; sRPE (session rating of perceived exertion). \* = denotes  
 495 difference from starters.  $p < 0.05$