



44 **ABSTRACT**

45

46 **Purpose:** Quantifying training intensity provides a comprehensive understanding of the  
47 training stimulus. Recent technological advances may have improved the feasibility of using  
48 heart rate (HR) monitoring in swimming. However, the implementation of HR monitoring is  
49 yet to be assessed longitudinally in the daily training environment of swimmers. This study  
50 aimed to assess the implementation of HR by comparing the training intensity distribution from  
51 an external measure, planned volume at set intensities (PVSI), to the internal training intensity  
52 distribution measured using time in HR zones. **Methods:** Using a longitudinal observational  
53 design, ten competitive swimmers (8 males and 2 females, age:  $22.0 \pm 2.3$  yr, FINA point score:  
54  $842.9 \pm 58.5$ , mean  $\pm$  SD) were monitored daily for 6-months. Each session, heart rate data,  
55 coached planned and athlete reported session rating of perceived exertion (sRPE; Modified  
56 CR10 scale) were recorded. Based on previously determined training zones from an  
57 incremental step test, PVSI was calculated using the planned distance and planned intensity of  
58 each swim bout. Training intensity distributions were analysed using a linear mixed model  
59 (lme4, R Core Team). **Results:** The model revealed a small-to-moderate relationship between  
60 PVSI and time in HR zone, based on the Nakagawa R squared value (range 0.14-0.42).  
61 **Conclusions:** Training intensity distribution differed between the internal measure (i.e., HR)  
62 and the external measure of intensity (i.e., PVSI). This demonstrates that internal and planned  
63 external measures of intensity cannot be used interchangeably to monitor training. Further  
64 research should explore how to best integrate these measures to better understand training in  
65 swimming.

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67 **Keywords:** internal training intensity, planned external training intensity, wearable  
68 technology, training intensity distribution, swimming.

## 69 INTRODUCTION

70

71 The ability to effectively quantify training intensity is paramount in determining the effect of  
72 a given exercise bout<sup>1</sup>. Intensity can be described using an external measure (i.e., pace,  
73 velocity), or an internal measure (i.e., heart rate, blood lactate)<sup>1</sup>. Internal training intensity  
74 measures are preferred and thought to better reflect the pathophysiological response that drives  
75 adaptation<sup>2</sup>. In swimming, training intensity can be prescribed as a percentage of critical  
76 velocity<sup>3</sup>, based on rating of perceived exertion (RPE)<sup>4</sup>, or using a session goal time in zone  
77 approach<sup>5</sup>. Training intensity is also commonly prescribed as a distance swum at a  
78 predetermined velocity which is linked to a physiological anchor (i.e., a blood lactate value,  
79 heart rate range)<sup>6,7</sup>. This method of planned volume at set intensities (PVSI) provides a  
80 surrogate for internal intensity and assumes the corresponding internal physiological response  
81 to a prescribed velocity is consistently elicited. However, these methods are limited as without  
82 a continuous measure of actual exercise intensity, it is unclear whether the training session is  
83 eliciting the desired adaptations<sup>2</sup>. Therefore, other measures of intensity may provide a more  
84 comprehensive understanding of both the prescribed and actual training stimulus for  
85 swimmers.

86

87 Heart rate (HR) offers a practical, non-invasive, and inexpensive method of quantifying  
88 internal training intensity, and is used across a variety of endurance sports<sup>8-10</sup>. A major benefit  
89 of HR monitoring is its portability, allowing the internal training intensity to be continuously  
90 monitored in a range of training contexts, and the intensity distribution of the entire session to  
91 be captured. Despite their frequent use in land-based sports<sup>8-10</sup>, the use of HR monitors to  
92 quantify time in HR zones in swim training has been limited<sup>4,5</sup>. This lack of implementation is  
93 most likely due to the challenges of measuring HR in an aquatic environment combined with  
94 the known limitations of HR monitoring (i.e., impact of hydration, temperature, limited ability  
95 to monitor high intensity interval training, assumed linear relationship between heart rate and  
96 oxygen consumption during maximal exercise)<sup>11</sup>. To circumnavigate this difficulty, previous  
97 studies have used non-waterproof HR monitors or manual palpation during swim training to  
98 capture HR measurements out of the water<sup>12-14</sup>. However, these approaches do not continuously  
99 measure intensity during an entire training session and may not completely reflect the training  
100 demands.

101

102 Recently, HR monitors using photoplethysmographic technology have been implemented in  
103 competitive swimming<sup>6,15</sup>. Whilst these monitors have been shown to be both valid and reliable  
104 in controlled settings<sup>6,15</sup>, the feasibility of these units to quantify training intensity in the daily  
105 training environment is yet to be assessed. The purpose of this study was to assess the  
106 implementation of HR monitoring by comparing internal and planned external training  
107 intensity distributions in swimming. To do this, the association between PVSI and time in HR  
108 zone was assessed over the course of a season in highly trained competitive swimmers training  
109 in a high-performance environment.

## 110 METHODS

### 111 *Subjects*

112

113 Ten national-to-international level competitive swimmers [8 males and 2 females, age: 22.0  
114  $\pm$ 2.3 yr, FINA point score: 842.9  $\pm$ 58.5, (mean  $\pm$ SD)] were observed daily for 6-months.  
115 Written informed consent was obtained from the swimmers prior to the data analysis. Approval

116 was obtained from the University of Technology Sydney Ethics Committee (ETH21-6130),  
117 and permission to use training data was granted by the provincial sporting institute. The  
118 investigation conformed to the Code of Ethics of the World Medical Association.

### 119 *Design*

120  
121 A longitudinal observational design was implemented to examine the relationship between  
122 PVSI and time in HR zone. Athletes were monitored from January to June 2021 in the period  
123 leading up to a major national competition. Training sessions (~9 sessions/week) were  
124 completed in an indoor pool. The athletes attended three training camps, in outdoor training  
125 facilities, each lasting one-to-two weeks throughout the study period. These sessions were  
126 included in the analysis. During the study period, participants completed land-based strength  
127 training two times per week. Swimmers also competed in four competitions which were  
128 included in the total sessions but were excluded for analysis as athletes chose not to wear HR  
129 monitors while competing. Prior to each training session, the coach provided the planned  
130 distance and intensity of each swim bout using a modified PVSI method (see table 1) and a  
131 planned session rating of perceived exertion (sRPE; Modified CR10 scale)<sup>16</sup>. Each session,  
132 HR was recorded, and athletes reported their total distance swum and sRPE within 30 minutes  
133 of training completion. All participants were accustomed to these procedures as part of their  
134 ongoing training monitoring.

### 135 *Methodology*

#### 136 Planned Volume at Set Intensities

137  
138 Planned volume at set intensities were calculated by allocating the coach-prescribed swimming  
139 bouts into metres planned across 8 intensity zones. These zones were based on the descriptors  
140 used in Table 1<sup>17,18</sup> for zones 1-5. Three custom race pace zones (800-400 m pace, 200 m pace,  
141 100 m pace and faster) were also calculated, these were individualised for each swimmer and  
142 based on a target time. Prior to analysis, all race pace work (800-100 m pace or faster) was  
143 combined into Zone 5 to align with HR-based training zones, where PVSI would represent  
144 metres swum in Zone 1 (Z1m) through to Zone 5 (Z5m) as shown in Table 1. Individual  
145 training zones were determined following an early season incremental 5 x 200 m step test<sup>19</sup>.  
146 The training intensity descriptors (see Table 1) were given to the athletes prior to the  
147 observation period to allow the athletes to individually relate to the training intensity zones.  
148 Training was then prescribed to the athletes as a volume, in metres, and a zone for example  
149 “400m at Zone 1 intensity”. This method of training prescription was familiar to the coach and  
150 athletes as it formed part of their ongoing training monitoring.

#### 151 Heart Rate

152  
153 Swimmers recorded HR for all swim training sessions using the Polar OH1 HR monitor (Polar  
154 Electro, Kempele, Finland). The monitor was placed under the swimmers’ swimming cap near  
155 the temple to record the entire training session<sup>6,15</sup>. At the end of each session each athlete  
156 uploaded the recorded session from their personal HR monitor to a secure online athlete  
157 monitoring system (Polar Flow; Polar Electro, Kempele, Finland; <https://flow.polar.com>).  
158 Each HR file was downloaded and assessed using a customised template (Microsoft Excel,  
159 Microsoft, Oregon USA). All HR files were checked and coded as a full session (HR data  
160 available for the entire session), a partial session recording (a session with any missing data),  
161 or a missing session (no HR data available). Partial sessions were included in the analysis if no

162 more than 5% of data was missing. At the conclusion of the study, each athlete's peak HR  
163 across the data collection period was obtained from Polar Flow and used as the maximal  
164 physiological anchor point. The time in HR zones were calculated for each session. Zones were  
165 based on each athlete's peak HR (Z1 50-75%, Z2 75-80%, Z3 80-85%, Z4 85-92% and Z5  
166 >92%)<sup>17</sup>.

167

168

169 Session Rating of Perceived Exertion.

170

171 For all training sessions both the coach planned and athlete sRPE were recorded <sup>16</sup>. During the  
172 athletes' warm up the coach was asked to report each athlete's planned sRPE for the session.  
173 This was recorded in a customised Microsoft Excel spreadsheet (Microsoft Excel, Microsoft,  
174 Oregon USA). RPE<sub>diff</sub> was calculated by subtracting the athlete reported sRPE from the coach  
175 planned sRPE, yielding a positive or negative RPE<sub>diff</sub> value.

176 *Statistical Analysis*

177

178 For analysis, sessions with no or partial HR recordings were excluded, sessions with missing  
179 PVSI, sRPE or session that were modified data were removed and are shown in Table 2 as  
180 *missing training data*. The training intensity distributions from PVSI and time in HR zone were  
181 compared using linear mixed models (LMMs). Using time in HR zone as the dependent  
182 variable LMMs were constructed for each of the 5 zones using the *lme4* package in R (R Core  
183 Team). The time in HR zone (in seconds) was compared to the PVSI (in metres) for each  
184 intensity zone, with each zone examined independently (e.g., Z1 time in HR zone compared to  
185 Z1 PVSI, Z2 time in HR zone compared to Z2 PVSI, Z3 time in HR zone compared to Z3  
186 PVSI, Z4 time in HR zone compared to Z4 PVSI, Z5 time in HR zone compared to Z5 PVSI).  
187 Given the repeated measures design, a null model was firstly specified using the individual  
188 athlete identifier as the random effect. The analysis model used PVSI and RPE<sub>diff</sub> as fixed  
189 effects and the individual athlete identifier as the random effect. The distribution of the  
190 residuals was checked for normality using a QQ plot. Data are presented as the parameter  
191 estimate, the standardised mean difference 95% confidence interval and Akaike Information  
192 Criterion (AIC). The Nakagawa R squared value (R<sup>2</sup>c) was calculated using the MuMIN  
193 Package in R to show goodness of fit in the LMM<sup>20</sup>. The magnitude of the Nakagawa R squared  
194 value was assessed using the following criteria; < 0.10; trivial; 0.10-0.29 small; 0.30-0.49,  
195 moderate; 0.50-0.69 large; 0.70-0.89 very large; and 0.90-1.00, almost perfect<sup>21</sup>.

## 196 RESULTS

197 *Missing Data*

198

199 Throughout the observation period, 2001 training and racing sessions (mean duration 90.4  
200 minutes) were captured across the 10 athletes (Table 2). Of those, 781 sessions were excluded  
201 from the analysis. Reasons for exclusion included missing training data, missing HR  
202 recordings, partial HR recordings, or racing sessions (Table 2). Table 3 provides further detail  
203 on the training sessions (based on athlete reported sRPE) that were missing HR data. There  
204 were 1220 individual training sessions included in the final analysis.

205

206

## 207 *Linear Mixed Models*

208

209 A summary of random effects, parameter estimates, model fit, and Nakagawa R squared values  
210 ( $R^2c$ ) for the LMMs are shown in Table 4. The  $R^2c$  values ranged from 0.14 to 0.42 showing a  
211 small-to-moderate relationship between PVSI and time in HR zone (see Table 4). The AIC for  
212 the analysis model was higher than the null model for all zones and was accepted (see Table  
213 4).

## 214 **DISCUSSION**

215

216 The present study aimed to assess the implementation of HR monitoring in competitive  
217 swimmers by comparing planned external and internal training intensity distributions. Our  
218 assessment of HR monitoring in a high-performance training environment highlighted a large  
219 amount of missing HR data (39%) when compliance checks and strategies to ensure monitor  
220 use were not utilised. When comparing planned external to internal load, the results of a LMM  
221 showed a small-to-moderate relationship between PVSI and time in HR zone across the five  
222 intensity zones. A main finding was the amount of missing data associated with longitudinal  
223 HR monitoring. Missing data can negatively impact the monitoring of training intensity and  
224 may introduce statistical biases when analysing training data<sup>22</sup>. Whilst the HR monitors used  
225 in the present study have been validated to measure maximal HR in swimming<sup>15</sup>, the number  
226 of sessions with no HR recording (7.2%) or a partial HR recording (24.3%), reduced the  
227 feasibility of HR monitoring in the present study. Although, it should be noted that large inter-  
228 individual differences in the percentage of missing data (see Table 2) were observed. It is  
229 unclear whether the missing HR data in the present study was from technical or human sources.

230

231 Missing data from HR monitors due to technical problems in an aquatic environment have been  
232 reported<sup>4,23</sup> and placement under the swimmers' caps may have further disrupted the consistent  
233 detection of HR in the present study. Other studies have measured HR using monitors out of  
234 the water with non-waterproof HR monitors or using chest straps<sup>6,13</sup>. From a practical  
235 perspective, unexplained drop out may also occur due to athletes removing their HR monitor  
236 during the session, poor skin contact, loss of contact during dive starts, or low batteries. As a  
237 result, when implementing HR monitoring systems it would be beneficial to record the cause  
238 and source of missing data. Then develop strategies to mitigate its impact on training  
239 monitoring and improve the feasibility of using HR monitoring. Common strategies to  
240 overcome missing data include imputation of missing values through modelling or averages<sup>24</sup>.  
241 Practical strategies to reduce the amount of missing data could include, routine reminders to  
242 wear HR monitors, ensuring monitors are worn for the entire session and having spare HR  
243 monitors available. Alternatively, coaches and sports science practitioners may choose to  
244 prioritise the collection of main set data from their swimmers to ensure the key training  
245 stimulus of the session is captured. There was also a small number of sessions with missing  
246 RPE or PVSI data, or sessions that were modified due to athlete injury (9.8%) during the study  
247 period. This demonstrates the difficulty collecting data daily from all participants in an applied,  
248 ecological setting. Therefore, when implementing HR monitoring, coaches and sport science  
249 practitioners need to be aware of the potential sources of missing HR and training data to then  
250 develop practices to mitigate the occurrence.

251

252 The small-to-moderate relationship between PVSI and time in HR zone based on the  $R^2c$  value  
253 suggests a discrepancy between the assumed internal response using PVSI and the actual  
254 internal HR response. Previous research has also found mixed results relating internal and

255 external measures of training intensity<sup>25</sup>. A study in open water swimming identified  
256 differences between internal and external intensity distributions using session RPE, session  
257 goal and time in HR zone, and distance<sup>5</sup>. During a season of cycling training, researchers have  
258 also reported large discrepancies between RPE, HR and power output during high-intensity  
259 training and moderate discrepancies between these variables at low intensities<sup>10</sup>. The authors  
260 suggested these discrepancies are due to the impact of HR lag (i.e., the delay or latency in HR  
261 response to a given workload at the onset of exercise) on time in zone as an intensity measure<sup>10</sup>.  
262 Moreover, HR lag may negatively impact HR monitoring in swimming more than cycling due  
263 to the high prevalence of interval training in swimming and is an inherent challenge when  
264 attempting to capture training intensities in both the aerobic and anaerobic domains using heart  
265 rate. In team sports, where interval training is common, differences between HR-based training  
266 measures and external measures have been reported<sup>26,27</sup>. In American football, where intervals  
267 can contain very high running speeds, HR data alone did not have meaningful correlations with  
268 external training intensity measures<sup>27</sup>. When derived into a HR-based intensity measure with  
269 duration (i.e., TRIMPs and HR reserve), there were only meaningful relationships with low-  
270 intensity external measures<sup>27</sup>. In soccer, the use of time in HR zone as an intensity measure  
271 was criticised as it underestimated physiological stress<sup>26</sup>. Accordingly, in the present study  
272 factors such as HR lag, may have impacted the relationship between PVS<sub>I</sub> and time in HR  
273 zone. Consequently, coaches and sport science practitioners looking to implement HR  
274 monitoring should be aware of these limitations and look to contextualise the HR data  
275 alongside other training variables (i.e., blood lactate measures or RPE) or explore other analysis  
276 options when implementing HR monitoring to assess high-intensity interval training.

277  
278 Heart rate measures have a limited ability to reflect the relative intensity of high-intensity  
279 intermittent efforts<sup>16</sup>. In the present study, the relationship between time in HR zone and PVS<sub>I</sub>  
280 at high intensity (zone 5), was moderate ( $R^2c = 0.42$ ). Given the lack of previous research on  
281 the longitudinal assessment of contemporary HR monitors in competitive swimming, it is  
282 difficult to contextualise our findings within the current swimming literature. Previous  
283 swimming research has documented the potential impact for HR lag<sup>15</sup> and suggested session-  
284 RPE may be more sensitive as a training intensity measure than HR during high intensity swim  
285 training<sup>4</sup>. In dry-land sports, research has demonstrated a similar discrepancy between HR-  
286 based measures of intensity and external measures of intensity<sup>8,9,16,25-28</sup>. Since race pace  
287 training is not centrally regulated, it is logical a small relationship may exist between PVS<sub>I</sub> and  
288 time in HR zone at high intensity. However, this does not explain why the relationship in zone  
289 5 was higher than the other training zones in the present investigation. It is possible that this is  
290 due to combining both maximal aerobic and race pace efforts into a single training zone, or the  
291 relatively low volume of training completed in this zone<sup>26</sup>. Alternatively, it may be linked to  
292 the limited ability for HR to accurately monitor high-intensity training, and highlights the need  
293 for a multivariate approach to monitor intensity. As this is the first study to assess HR in  
294 swimming longitudinally, further research is required to better understand and explain the  
295 relationship between PVS<sub>I</sub> and HR at high intensities.

296  
297 The small-to-moderate relationship between PVS<sub>I</sub> and time in HR zone may have been  
298 impacted by the inherent differences between internal and planned external subdimensions of  
299 training. In the present study, the PVS<sub>I</sub> measure, a distance at a predetermined velocity, was  
300 compared to the time spent in each HR zone, two different subdimensions of training load.  
301 Previous studies have found similar small relationships between internal and external training  
302 load and intensity measures<sup>25-27</sup>. In team sports, different monitoring methods, such as sRPE,  
303 HR measures and external velocity measures were shown to provide different information  
304 about a single training stimulus<sup>29</sup>. A key factor driving these differences may be the varied

305 internal response experienced by athletes to a given external training load depending on their  
306 psychobiological state prior to the training session<sup>2</sup>. Given the complexity of physiological  
307 systems the likelihood of a single variable capturing the complexity of a single exercise bout  
308 is low<sup>28,30</sup>. Accordingly, there needs to be caution when monitoring training with a single  
309 measure<sup>29</sup>, and when assuming an internal response from a planned external measure. The  
310 combination of several training monitoring variables in a multivariate approach has long been  
311 advocated for and the benefits previously demonstrated<sup>4,12,28,29</sup>. Furthermore, given that  
312 different training monitoring methods can influence the calculation of training intensity  
313 distribution<sup>8</sup>, a multivariate approach may provide a more holistic description of completed  
314 training. For example, it may be advantageous to prescribe and monitor low-intensity (i.e., zone  
315 1-4) bouts with HR to capture the cardiorespiratory centred training stimulus and use both RPE  
316 and velocity to reflect the demands of high-intensity training (i.e., zone 5). In endurance  
317 running, the use of running times has been suggested to more accurately reflect the sudden  
318 changes in velocity that come with high-intensity interval training<sup>8</sup>. Given the differences  
319 between internal and external sub-dimensions of training implementing a multivariate  
320 approach to training monitoring may assist in contextualising HR data. These monitoring  
321 approaches can assist in developing a deeper understanding of training and assist in improving  
322 training prescription practices for coaches and sport science practitioners.

323  
324 A limitation of the present study was that only planned velocities, rather than actual velocities  
325 were measured. Understanding if the swimmers successfully achieved the prescribed velocities  
326 would have provided additional information to contextualise the HR data. As such, it is  
327 important for the results to be interpreted as the difference between internal training intensity  
328 and planned, rather than actual external training intensity. An additional limitation was the use  
329 of peak HR from the season with PVSZ zones based on velocities from pre-season. These  
330 limitations may have reduced the amount of explained variance in the models and impacted  
331 our results. A further limitation was the large amount of missing HR data, which led to  
332 differences in the number of sessions analysed for each athlete and potentially biased the types  
333 of sessions analysed in the study. Finally, there are several considerations to be addressed when  
334 quantifying training in this cohort. In this study, training was completed in a range of  
335 environments (i.e., training camps, varying environmental conditions and 25 and 50m pools)  
336 which may have increased variation in the results. Future studies may look to assess the impact  
337 of these factors on the relationship between measures of training intensity.

## 338 PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS

339  
340 The use of HR provides insight into the internal intensity experienced by swimmers during  
341 training. However, the current findings suggest when using HR data to quantify training  
342 intensity distribution, it should not be interpreted in a similar manner to when PVSZ is used.  
343 This finding highlights the importance of continuing to use the pre-existing method(s) of  
344 prescribing and monitoring training when introducing a new method, such as HR monitors into  
345 a competitive training environment. Moreover, considering the limitations of each method of  
346 training monitoring, a multivariate approach incorporating both internal and external training  
347 intensity measures, could be adopted. Prescribing and monitoring training using HR-based  
348 measures of intensity for aerobic training and using RPE or PVSZ-based methods for work  
349 above maximal aerobic capacity may help improve our understanding of athlete training. To  
350 ensure robust data collection when using HR monitors, an awareness of the sources of missing  
351 data (i.e., technological, or human error) should be established. Then, measures to account for  
352 the missing data, or to mitigate missing data in the first place should be implemented. By  
353 implementing these approaches coaches and sport science practitioners can gain a more



354 comprehensive understanding of completed training, which can help support future training  
355 prescription.  
356

## 357 CONCLUSION

358  
359 Longitudinal HR monitoring can provide valuable insight into an athlete's internal response  
360 during training. Based on the current findings, strategies to minimise missing HR data may be  
361 needed within the training environment. Also, the small-to-moderate relationship between the  
362 planned external measure (PVSI) and the internal measure (time in HR zone) highlight that the  
363 two methods of training load monitoring cannot be used interchangeably. Coaches and sport  
364 science practitioners should consider implementing a multivariate approach to training  
365 monitoring using both internal and external measures of intensity to better understand the  
366 training. Future research should look to develop strategies to mitigate missing HR data, account  
367 for the potential impact of HR lag on training analysis and assess how HR monitoring can be  
368 implemented effectively in a multivariate approach to training monitoring.  
369

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## 465 Figures and Tables

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**Table 1** Descriptors used to describe planned volume at set intensity. Adapted training zones from Jamnick, Pettitt, Granata, Pyne and Bishop <sup>17</sup>

Physiological anchor	Z1 (m)	Z2 (m)	Z3 (m)	Z4 (m)	Z5 (m)
%HR <sub>peak</sub>	50–75%	75–80%	80–85%	85–92%	> 92%
Blood lactate	< 2.0	2.0–2.5	2.5–3.5	3.5–5.0	> 5.0
RPE	<11	11–12	13–14	15–16	17-19

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*RPE* - Rating of Perceived Exertion, %HR<sub>peak</sub> - percentage of peak heart rate, Z1 - Zone 1, Z2 - Zone 2, Z3 - Zone 3, Z4 - Zone 4, Z5 - Zone 5

472 **Table 2** Training characteristics of each participant throughout the data collection period including a summary of missing  
 473 and excluded data.

Participants	Weekly Volume (km)	Total Swim Sessions	Full Recording	Partial Recording	No Recording	Racing Sessions	Missing Training Data	Partial Sessions Excluded	Total Included Sessions	% HR Data Included
Participant 1	38.63	209	60	104	20	25	20	60	98	47%
Participant 2	38.63	213	163	12	10	28	19	8	146	69%
Participant 3	36.79	208	128	47	7	26	25	18	135	65%
Participant 4	47.56	138	94	12	8	24	5	1	99	72%
Participant 5	37.98	203	108	50	23	22	18	28	116	57%
Participant 6	37.06	209	127	43	16	23	25	31	114	55%
Participant 7	50.89	220	160	31	3	26	17	6	171	78%
Participant 8	36.15	193	111	28	37	17	18	12	109	56%
Participant 9	41.83	209	120	50	13	26	28	32	115	55%
Participant 10	43.07	199	118	50	8	23	21	31	117	59%
Total		2001	1189	427	145	240	196	227	1220	61%

474 \* Exclusion criteria for heart rate analysis are discussed in the methods. Sessions were excluded if >5% of heart  
 475 rate data was missing, *HR*- heart rate, *km* – Kilometres,  
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478 **Table 3** Number of sessions excluded based on athlete reported sRPE

Training Zone	Number of sessions excluded based on athlete reported sRPE
Z1	37
Z2	44
Z3	20
Z4	25
Z5	64

479 *sRPE* – Session Rating of Perceived Exertion, *Z1* - Zone 1, *Z2* - Zone 2, *Z3* - Zone 3, *Z4* - Zone 4, *Z5* - Zone 5  
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1 **Table 4** The parameter estimated and 95% confidence intervals for the null model and the analysis model for each of the 5 zones for the relationship between planned volume at set intensities  
 2 and time in heart rate zone.

Models	Random effects		Fixed effects				Planned Volume at Each Set Intensity (m)			RPE <sub>diff</sub>		Model Fit		
	Intercept	SD	Residuals	SD	Intercept	95% CI	Estimate	95% CI	SMD	Estimate	95% CI	SMD	AIC	R <sup>2c</sup>
Zone 1														
Z1 null model	238240.00	488.10	928778.00	963.70	3957.60	(3617.61, 4296.96)							20267.60	0.20
<b>Z1 model</b>	<b>237387.00</b>	<b>487.20</b>	<b>850615.00</b>	<b>922.30</b>	<b>3510.00</b>	<b>(3159.23, 3860.60)</b>	<b>0.21</b>	<b>(0.16, 0.25)</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	<b>143.00</b>	<b>(95.09, 190.89)</b>	<b>0.29</b>	<b>20165.20</b>	<b>0.27</b>
Zone 2														
Z2 null model	27289.00	165.20	217397.00	466.30	617.52	(500.81, 734.64)							18489.20	0.11
<b>Z2 model</b>	<b>28208.00</b>	<b>168.00</b>	<b>194764.00</b>	<b>441.30</b>	<b>404.10</b>	<b>(281.29, 527.00)</b>	<b>0.11</b>	<b>(0.09, 0.13)</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	<b>31.24</b>	<b>(8.32, 54.15)</b>	<b>0.18</b>	<b>18360.40</b>	<b>0.21</b>
Zone 3														
Z3 null model	19447.00	139.50	192378.00	438.60	394.10	(295.70, 493.72)							18338.00	0.09
<b>Z3 model</b>	<b>18272.00</b>	<b>135.2</b>	<b>182571.00</b>	<b>427.30</b>	<b>312.89</b>	<b>(214.79, 411.40)</b>	<b>0.16</b>	<b>(0.12, 0.20)</b>	<b>0.001</b>	<b>26.73</b>	<b>(4.54, 48.92)</b>	<b>0.20</b>	<b>18278.10</b>	<b>0.14</b>
Zone 4														
Z4 null model	29800.00	172.60	155019.00	393.70	253.87	(378.54, 409.95)							18080.60	0.16
<b>Z4 model</b>	<b>25218.00</b>	<b>158.80</b>	<b>137764.00</b>	<b>371.20</b>	<b>194.49</b>	<b>(83.05, 306.22)</b>	<b>0.43</b>	<b>(0.36, 0.50)</b>	<b>0.002</b>	<b>6.71</b>	<b>(-12.66, 26.08)</b>	<b>0.04</b>	<b>17940.20</b>	<b>0.24</b>
Zone 5														
Z5 null model	2942.00	54.24	29055.00	170.46	60.36	(21.70, 98.98)							16031.90	0.09
<b>Z5 model</b>	<b>1591.00</b>	<b>39.89</b>	<b>18137.00</b>	<b>134.68</b>	<b>-5.60</b>	<b>(-34.45, 23.43)</b>	<b>0.22</b>	<b>(0.21, 0.24)</b>	<b>0.006</b>	<b>-16.48</b>	<b>(-23.62, -9.35)</b>	<b>-0.41</b>	<b>15495.70</b>	<b>0.42</b>

3 Significance determined as  $p \leq 0.05$ , *AIC* - Akaike's information criterion, **Bold** = best model fit, CI - confidence interval, *m* - Metre, *R<sup>2c</sup>* - Nakagawa R squared value, *RPE<sub>diff</sub>* - Difference  
 4 between athlete reported and coach planned rating of perceived exertion, *SD* - Standard deviation, *SMD* - Standardised mean difference  
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