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Paper:

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1	Original article
2	Title: The validity of a head-worn inertial sensor for measurements of swimming performance.
3	Titre: Validité d'un capteur inertiel porté à la tête pour mesurer les performances en natation.
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17	Running head: "Validity of the inertial sensor for swimming"
18	Key words: Micro-technology; measurement error; water sports
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29 Abstract

30 The validity of the TritonWear[®] device to measure swimming performance was investigated, 31 with a pre-determined analytical goal of 6%. Twenty youth swimmers completed a 100 m swim 32 in a 25 m pool, swimming breaststroke or freestyle wearing the TritonWear® device, whilst 33 being filmed above and below water with three cameras. 95% Limits of Agreement (95% LoA) 34 and coefficient of variation (CV%) were used to calculate error. Systematic biases (P < 0.05) 35 were found between the two systems only for distance per stroke during breaststroke. Freestyle 36 metrics agreement ranged between 1.06 % and 10.40 % CV, except for distance per stroke (CV 37 = 14.64 %), and time underwater (CV = 18.15 %). Breaststroke metrics ranged between 0.95 % 38 and 13.74 % CV, except for time underwater (CV = 25.76 %). The smallest errors were found 39 for split-times, speed, stroke-count and stroke-rate, across both strokes (all < 5% CV). The 40 TritonWear® can be used for basic metrics of performance, such as split-time and speed but 41 the error of more complex measurements, such as time underwater or turn-times, renders them 42 unable to identify typical performance changes.

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44 Résumé

45 La validité du dispositif TritonWear® pour mesurer les performances en natation a été étudiée 46 avec un objectif analytique prédéterminé de 6%. Vingt jeunes nageurs ont réalisé une épreuve 47 de 100 m dans une piscine de 25 m, en brasse ou en nage libre en portant le dispositif 48 TritonWear®, tout en étant filmés au-dessus et en dessous de l'eau avec trois caméras. Les 49 limites de concordance à 95% (LoA à 95%) et le coefficient de variation (CV%) ont été utilisés 50 pour calculer l'erreur. Des biais systématiques (p <0,05) ont été trouvés entre les deux systèmes 51 uniquement pour la distance parcourue par coup de bras en brasse. La concordance des métriques en nage libre variait entre 1,06% et 10,40% du CV, sauf pour la distance par coup 52 de bras (CV = 14,64%) et le temps passé sous l'eau (CV = 18,15%). Les valeurs pour la brasse 53

54	variaient entre 0,95% et 13,74% du CV, sauf pour le temps passé sous l'eau ($CV = 25,76\%$).
55	Les plus petites erreurs ont été trouvées pour les temps intermédiaires, la vitesse, le nombre de
56	coups de bras et la fréquence des coups de bras, pour les deux nages (tous <5% de CV). Le
57	TritonWear® peut être utilisé pour les mesures de performance de base, telles que le temps
58	intermédiaire et la vitesse, mais l'erreur sur des paramètres plus complexes, telles que la durée
59	d'immersion ou les temps de virage, ne permet pas d'identifier des modifications de ces
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79 Introduction

80 The margins of success and failure in competitive pool swimming are small, particularly in 81 sprint (< 400 m) events. For example, there are approximately 6% differences in velocity 82 between qualifiers and non-qualifiers of world championships (Takagi et al., 2004) and even smaller differences (0.5 - 3 %) between 1^{st} and 2^{nd} place in 100 m Olympic finals 83 84 (https://www.olympic.org/rio-2016/swimming) or after training programme manipulation (Mujika et al., 1995; Mujika et al., 2002). The 6% differences between qualifiers and non-85 86 qualifiers (Takagi et al., 2004) is closely aligned with the training-induced performance 87 changes across key performance metrics. Therefore, a 6% change in performance provides the 88 most relevant differentiation of ability levels among competitive swimmers and is a change 89 that can be achieved owing to training. This threshold therefore represents a reasonable 90 'analytical goal' (Atkinson & Nevill, 1998). Analytical goals are formulated to determine the 91 maximal level of measurement error that can be permitted by an investigator when using a 92 device to detect changes in performance. As such, the accuracy of testing equipment must be 93 sufficient to recognise anticipated changes in performance, which should be determined prior 94 to evaluation of its measurement error (analytical goals).

95

96 Video- or sensor-based data devices are typically used to quantify swimming performance 97 (Beanland et al., 2014). Video analyses are considered to be the 'gold standard' method 98 (Ceseracciu et al., 2011) and are the most commonly used (Gourgoulis et al., 2008; Smith et 99 al., 2002). Despite this, video analysis techniques are complex and rely on the technical 100 expertise of the user (Knudson, 2007). Furthermore, their lower sampling rate 25-30 Hz is 101 likely to limit the accuracy of performance metrics during high-speed movements, such as 102 stroke rate or during turning manoeuvres. Wearable and water-proof microelectromechanical 103 systems (MEMS) provide a possible alternative to video analysis techniques (Callaway et al.,

2009; Dadashi et al., 2013; Ohgi et al., 2003). An example of this is the 'TritonWear®' device,
which claims to accurately measure speed and stroke efficiency metrics using a head-mounted
unit - the fitting of which causes less proprioceptive disruption than limb- or torso-worn devices
(Lecoutere & Puers, 2014).

108

109 The TritonWear® technology measures a number of swimming performance metrics, such as 110 split-time, stroke count, speed, stroke rate, distance per stroke, turn-time and time underwater 111 (Lehary, 2015). Indeed, it is relevant to provide accurate measurements of these kinematic 112 variables, since success in swimming performance is largely explained by their combination 113 (Barbosa et al., 2010). Whilst others have investigated the validity of a global positioning 114 system-micro-technology (GPS) to quantify swimming performance metrics (Beanland et al., 115 2014), these devices were not purpose-built for monitoring swimming performance. As such 116 limitations in the technology during water submersion, as well as raw sampling rate of GPS-117 derived measurements (≤ 10 Hz) or the algorithmic treatment of raw MEMS signals on board 118 these units appeared to preclude their application. For example, stroke count was unreported 119 by Beanland et al. (2014) during freestyle swimming, owing to cumulative noise accrued by 120 the accelerometer during this stroke. Thus, the validity and reliability of a miniaturised 121 swimming-specific device intended for these key performance measurements is currently 122 unknown and could be used to replace more rudimentary chronometry, video methods or non-123 specific micro-technology commonly used by swimming coaches.

124

125 The aim of this study was to evaluate the validity of the TritonWear® device to measure 126 selected swimming performance metrics in comparison to a reference underwater video camera 127 system among competitive youth swimmers. For the current analysis, we adopted a 128 conservative *a-priori* analytical goal (see Atkinson & Nevill, 1998) that approximated the

typical changes observed in performance (split-time or speed) over a season among the current
or athletes in the literature of 6% (Takagi et al., 2004). The error (i.e. noise) between devices
for these variables should, therefore, permit the detection of signal changes of this magnitude.

132

133 Methods

134 Design and procedure

Participants completed a 100 m swim in an outdoor 25 m swimming pool (4 x 25 m), swimming either breaststroke or freestyle, wearing the TritonWear® device (The Triton Unit, firmware version 1.1.2, 50 Hz, TritonWear Inc.®, Ontario, Canada), whilst being filmed above and below water with fixed video cameras to evaluate validity. The two stroke-types were selected as they were the two stokes used in competition by the current participants.

140

141 Participants

Ten male and ten female (total n = 20) competitive national swimmers (age 16 ± 3 years; stature 143 170 ± 15 cm; body mass 61.5 ± 14.7 kg) and their parent/guardian provided written informed 144 consent to participate in the study. All participants took part in all trials. Institutional ethical 145 approval was granted for this study.

146

147 TritonWear® and Video Systems

The components of the TritonWear® waterproof sensor unit include: a 9-axis inertial measurement unit; a 3-axis digital accelerometer; a 3-axis digital gyroscope; a 3-axis digital magnetometer; a micro-controller; a wireless module to transmit calculated metrics to the hub; a clock to synchronise timing; and a lithium ion polymer battery with an internal battery charging unit. The tracker reads oscillation data in three axes from the accelerometer and gyroscope. The device measures 62 x 54 x 19 mm, weighs 51 g and is connected to the back

134	of the swimming goggie strap (Figure 1). The transmitted data were later analysed using the
155	manufacturer's software (TritonWear Insights, Ontario, Canada).
156	
157	****Insert figure 1 here****
158	
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160	Various metrics were analysed from the TritonWear® device. The start of each trial was
161	automated by the device as the internal gyroscope and accelerometer detect the swimmers
162	motion as they transition their head from a vertical to a horizontal position. As the swimmer
163	pushes off the wall, an increase in acceleration is detected by the accelerometer (sampling at
164	50 Hz), triggering an internal timer. The completion of a swim is determined by the following
165	characteristics in the signal from the sensors: an acceleration spike as the swimmer reaches the
166	wall, the transfer from horizontal to vertical head position, and finally, the decrease in

of the swimming goggle stren (Figure 1). The transmitted date were later analyzed using the

167 oscillatory signals being detected by the device.

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169 The TritonWear® device calculated all variables using the internal accelerometer and 170 gyroscope, which read and classify the oscillatory signals that are produced during swimming. 171 The push-off from the wall at the start of a swim was detected by the accelerometer, which 172 triggered a timer. Stroke type and stroke count were determined by the gyroscope, which 173 sensed the swimmers' angular velocities through three axes. The angular position for each axis 174 was determined using the numerical Euler method, which read the pitch, yaw and roll of the swimmers' head as they moved through the water. Turn-time (s) was measured by the 175 176 gyroscope; the timer started at the downwards movement of the swimmer's head for freestyle 177 and the rotation movement in an open turn for breaststroke, and ended when the swimmer's feet touched the wall, also capturing the end of a split. Time underwater (s) was calculated by 178

179 taking the time between the push-off from the wall (accelerometer), and the breakout event of 180 the head prior to the first stroke (gyroscope). Distance per stroke (m) was calculated by (length 181 of pool (m) – distance underwater (m)) / number of strokes. Speed (m/s) was determined by 182 calculating linear acceleration data and the change in time (acceleration x time) to determine 183 the average velocity of each swimmer for each length of the pool (m). Stroke rate (n/min) was 184 measured by subtracting the average time underwater from the average split-time, which is 185 then divided by the average number of stroke cycles in a length. For freestyle, one left hand 186 stroke and one right hand stroke equalled one stroke cycle. For breaststroke, each stroke is 187 counted as one stroke cycle. Once cessation of swimming was determined by the 188 accelerometer, the timer stopped and an overall time for the swim (split-time; s) was calculated.

189

190 Three cameras were used, in combination, to track the performance of the swimmers. This 191 comprised two underwater cameras (WallMount Cam, 1080p, 30 frames/s, SwimPro®, RJB 192 Engineering, New South Wales, Australia) and one iPad 2 (1080p, 30 frames/s, Apple Inc., 193 California, USA). Above water video was recorded using the iPad 2 and CoachesEye® 194 (TechSmith Corporation, Michigan, USA) analyses software. The underwater video cameras 195 were left running throughout the trials, whereas individual videos of swimmers were captured 196 using the iPad. The start and end of each trial was indicated by one investigator on the video, 197 so that it could be synchronized *post-hoc* with the TritonWear® recording analyses. One 198 experienced (> 5 years) investigator, with training and qualifications in performance analysis, 199 was responsible for video-based assessments. The operator had used the performance metrics and the associated working definitions previously. Their intra-operator error for freestyle and 200 201 breaststroke video data ranged between 1.01 % and 5.89 % CV. Table 1 provides the criteria 202 that were used to ensure that each variable was objectively evaluated.

 Table 1. Video analysis criteria.

Clock started when the feet of the swimmer left the wall, to the time that the hand touched the wall on the final length. This figure was divided by four to give the average split-time. Freestyle: Each hand entry was recorded as one stroke, therefore one hand entry from each limb was counted as two strokes. Breaststroke: Each stroke was counted as one stroke. Average split-time was divided by the pool length (25 m).
Freestyle: Each hand entry was recorded as one stroke, therefore one hand entry from each limb was counted as two strokes. Breaststroke: Each stroke was counted as one stroke. Average split-time was divided by the pool length (25 m).
Average split-time was divided by the pool length (25 m).
The average time underwater was subtracted from the average split-time. This figure was then divided by the average number of stroke cycles in a length and expressed in minutes.
The length of the pool - distance underwater / number of strokes identified.
Freestyle: timing of the freestyle turn started when the head moved forwards and down, signalling the beginning of the swimmer's turning action. The timer was stopped when the swimmer's feet hit the wall following the turn. Breaststroke: timing of the breaststroke turn started when the hands first touched the wall, signalling the beginning of the swimmer's feet hit the wall prior to push-off.
Timer started as the athlete's feet left the wall, timer stopped at first sight of the swimming cap above the surface of the water. Time underwater does not include turn-time.

Statistical analyses

Validity was assessed using a 95 % Limits of Agreement (95% LoA; (Atkinson and Nevill, 1998)) and coefficient of variation (CV%; (Hopkins, 2000). The current paper adopted an analytical goal of 6% and based its interpretations on the CV technique. The 95% LoA was provided for alternative interpretations among readers of the manuscript. Paired sampled *t*-tests were used to calculate bias between the TritonWear® device and video-based system. Statistical significance was set at P < 0.05 and adjusted for all dependent variables using a Bonferroni correction.

217218 Results219

The data (mean \pm SD), CV% and 95% LoA for comparisons of the two devices are shown in Table 2. Comparison of the TritonWear® device against video analysis demonstrated no systematic biases (P > 0.05) for the freestyle stroke. For breaststroke, distance per stroke ($t_{(9)}$ = - 4.14, P = 0.003) showed systematic biases, while all other metrics did not (P > 0.05) (Table 2).

Validity Data	TritonWear (mean ± s)	Video (mean ± s)	95% LoA	CV (%)
Freestyle				
Split-time (s)	17.45 ± 2.34	17.47 ± 2.44	-0.021 ± 0.51	1.06
Stroke count (n)	19.3 ± 1.77	19.3 ± 1.77	0.00 ± 1.31	2.44
Speed (m/s)	1.41 ± 0.19	1.45 ± 0.17	-0.041 ± 0.21	5.53
Stroke rate (n/min)	1.49 ± 0.22	1.55 ± 0.21	-0.065 ± 0.13	3.01
Distance per stroke (m)	1.13 ± 0.29	1.19 ± 0.10	-0.065 ± 0.47	14.64
Turn-time (s)	1.12 ± 0.13	1.13 ± 1.18	-0.003 ± 0.32	10.40
Time underwater (s)	2.72 ± 0.60	2.54 ± 0.28	0.185 ± 1.32	18.15
Breaststroke				
Split-time (s)	21.92 ± 2.22	21.88 ± 2.23	0.041 ± 0.57	0.95
Stroke count (n)	10.70 ± 2.06	10.8 ± 1.93	-0.1 ± 1.45	4.86
Speed (m/s)	1.14 ± 0.14	1.15 ± 0.11	$\textbf{-0.01} \pm 0.08$	2.79
Stroke rate (n/min)	1.56 ± 0.11	1.62 ± 0.14	$\textbf{-0.06} \pm 0.17$	3.77
Distance per stroke (m)	1.51 ± 0.19	1.95 ± 0.27	$-0.44 \pm 0.66*$	13.74
Turn-time (s)	1.56 ± 0.23	1.36 ± 0.13	0.19 ± 0.52	12.91
Time underwater (s)	4.89 ± 2.06	4.53 ± 0.89	0.36 ± 3.35	25.76

Table 2. Validity of TritonWear® data against video analysis data (n = 20).

Note: LOA = 95% limits of agreement; CV = coefficient of variation. Significantly different (P < 0.05); *Statistical significance (P < 0.05).

Freestyle metrics ranged between 1.06 % and 10.40 % CV, except for distance per stroke (CV = 14.64 %), and time underwater (CV = 18.15 %). Freestyle 95 % LoA metrics ranged between -0.065 \pm 0.13 and 0.185 \pm 1.32. Breaststroke metrics ranged between 0.95 % and 13.74 % CV, except for time underwater (CV = 25.76 %). Breaststroke 95 % LoA metrics ranged between -0.01 \pm 0.08 and 0.36 \pm 3.35 (Table 2).

233

234 **Discussion**

235 The main finding of this study was that the TritonWear® device did not systematically differ 236 (P > 0.05) from the video-based system for most variables, besides distance per stroke in the 237 breaststroke. The CV values for split-time, speed, stroke-rate and stroke-count were all <5% 238 across both stroke types. As such, the error between the devices is smaller than the analytical 239 goal of 6%, providing a favourable signal-noise ratio, thus indicating that the Tritonwear® 240 device is valid for these measured variables. This means that an athlete could wear the device 241 for 100 m training or competition and receive a split-time, speed or stroke-based metric that 242 would agree with the reference system. However, based on the wide LoA and CV values for a 243 number of other variables (turn-time, time underwater and distance per stroke), the degree of 244 random error relative to the analytical goal of 6% questions their validity, leaving athletes 245 unable to detect performance changes using this device.

246

There is opportunity for both biological error (that of the human operator) and technical error (that of the device) to affect the results of both systems used. The video-based system relies upon certain factors, such as the quality of the synchronised videos, the ability of the human eye to identify the start and end of a performance and the objectivity of the definitions used to guide the human investigator. Given that the split-time definitions were identical between devices and the investigators identified each variable in slow-motion (frame by frame), it is 253 most likely that the different technical specifications account for the small variations in basic 254 measurements of time and speed. For example, the different frame/sampling rates between 255 techniques (30 Hz frame/s vs. 50 Hz MEMS on the TritonWear®) mean that the investigator 256 might not be able to identify the exact time-point that the feet leave the wall, or reach the other 257 end, with the equal resolution whilst using the video system. An accumulation of these 258 discrepancies would lead to larger overall error across the 100 m swim duration. In addition to 259 this, there are a variety of on-board algorithms that correct for error in the TritonWear® device, 260 including advanced Kalman Filtering, that has capacity to correct for so-called 'drifts' based 261 on recent historical information, such as previous velocity. The accelerometry-derived 262 calculation of speed and iterative filtering processes, therefore, provide an advantage to the 263 TritonWear® relative to the video-based system, alongside its ease of application and real-time 264 feedback options for the swimmer.

265

266 The poorer agreement found for the more complex variables, such as time underwater and 267 distance per stroke can be explained by technical error. Naturally, these variables require further computation and include input from a variety of sensors, at a higher frequency. For 268 269 example, time underwater was the most variable comparison and requires the consistent 270 recognition of two key events: i) push-off from the wall and ii) surfacing. These two events use 271 two separate miniaturised systems; the accelerometer and gyroscope, respectively. Recognition 272 of these discrete events presumably requires some achievement of a predicted threshold value, 273 as well as their temporal synchronisation. A scenario where the athlete pushed off the wall with 274 poor technique, or prematurely raised their head relative to their body, would be discordant 275 with the expected technical 'model' of performance. Based on the above, there are a variety of 276 both hardware and algorithmic degrees of freedom, which appear to have accumulated in the 277 TritonWear® device and resulted in measurement errors that are likely to preclude its application with athletes in order to recognise changes in underwater time. This is important to
consider, as underwater time is an established predictor of performance in competitive pool
swimming (Vantorre et al., 2014) and, therefore, would be a useful tool for athletes to monitor
their progress during training. The video-based systems might be more labour-intensive but do
not suffer these same technical problems.

283

284 This study is not without limitations. For example, we were unable to access the raw signal of 285 the inertial sensors or the proprietary underlying algorithms, thus restricting our ability to fully 286 interrogate the signal processing or explore other methods of stroke analysis (see Dadashi et 287 al., 2015). This would be worthwhile, since the most erroneous measurements were those with 288 highest technical demand. Furthermore, the current analysis was constrained to 100 m 289 distances. Drift errors are more common while using IMUs across longer time periods. 290 However, the Kalman Filter used by the Tritonwear® was designed to correct for drift errors 291 and might partially remove this source of measurement noise, yet this requires further analysis 292 in future research. Finally, the video technique used was based on the performance of a single 293 operator and might be less repeatable among different users. The subjectivity of the technique 294 that is inevitably introduced when using human operators and poses a problem that can be 295 overcome by adopting automated measurement systems.

296

In conclusion, the TritonWear® device can be used by athletes or swimming practitioners for basic metrics of performance, such as split-time, speed, stroke-rate and stroke-count. However, the error for time underwater and distance per stroke in comparison to a reference system, question the TritonWear® system's capacity to validly record these values.

301 302

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305	Conflict of interest
306	No potential conflict of interest is reported by the authors.
307	
308	
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310	We thank the participants for taking part in this study.
311	
312	Author contributions
313	
314 215	All authors (MW, JB, JI, OJ, SP, LH) contributed to the conception and design of the study,
313 216	for important intellectual content and final approval of the version submitted
310	for important interfectual content and final approval of the version sublinited.
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428	Figure 1. Placement of TritonWear® device fitted directly inferior to the inion, on the occipital
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