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Countermovement jump and pull-up performance before and after a swimming race in preparatory and competitive phases of a swimming season

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5

6 **Author's names:**

7 Gonzalez-Rave, JM¹, Sorgente, V.² Agudo, A¹, Rodrigo-Carranza V¹, Psycharakis, S³,
8 Turner, AP³.

9

- 10 1. University of Castilla La Mancha, Sports Training Laboratory. Faculty of
11 Sports Sciences, Carlos III Avenue, 45008 Toledo, Spain.
12 2. Kinesiology and Motor Control (Ki.Mo.Co.) Laboratory, Department of
13 Experimental and Clinical Medicine, Physiological Sciences Section,
14 University of Florence, 50134 Florence, Italy.
15 3. Institute of Sport, Physical Education & Health Sciences, University of
16 Edinburgh, UK.

17

18 **Preferred running head:** Jumps and pull-ups at swimming events.

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20 **Correspondence:**

21 José María González-Ravé. University of Castilla La Mancha, Sports Training
22 Laboratory. Faculty of Sports Sciences, Carlos III Avenue, 45008 (Toledo, Spain).
23 +34666160346 josemaria.gonzalez@uclm.es

24

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32 **Abstract**

33 Purpose: Monitoring performance athletes' training responses can be efficiently
34 completed at competitive events. This study aimed to explore the changes in swimming,
35 countermovement jump (CMJ) and pull-up (PU) performance following training across a
36 competitive phase, as well as immediately before (PRE) and after (POST) each race.
37 Methods: Fourteen well-trained male sprint/middle-distance swimmers (height 179 ± 7
38 cm; mass 70 ± 8 kg; age: 18 ± 2 years), from 3 regional training groups, completed CMJ
39 and PU tests PRE and POST national competitions in October (PREP phase) and May
40 (COMP), when race performance was also assessed. Results: Swimming race
41 performance was significantly improved from PREP to COMP (1.8 ± 3.2 %, $p = 0.044$, d
42 $= 0.60$, moderate effect). Although there were no significant changes in PU velocity, CMJ
43 performance significantly improved from PREP to COMP (Mean difference 2.29 cm, p
44 $= 0.004$, $d = 3.52$) and showed PRE to POST race decreases (Mean difference -1.64 cm,
45 $p = 0.04$, $d = 2.28$). Conclusion: Swimming performance and CMJ performance improved
46 as the season progressed, although these improvements were not directly correlated. PU
47 performance did not appear to be sensitive to training or race-induced fatigue, in contrast
48 to CMJ, in this group of male swimmers.

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51 **Key words:** fatigue, competition, performance, sprint swimming, middle-distance.

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83 In sprint swimming events, i.e. race distances of 50m and 100m, in all four strokes, the
84 swimmers rely primarily on energy provision from muscle stores of high-energy
85 phosphates (i.e., adenosine triphosphate, adenosine diphosphate, and creatine phosphate).
86 There is evidence that strength, power, and recovery of this energy system can be
87 modified with appropriate training ¹⁻². In middle-distance swimming, the 200 m events
88 last around 01:45-2:45 (mm:ss) (depending on stroke and level), and are metabolically
89 supported by a combination of phosphate energy, anaerobic glycolysis, and the aerobic
90 metabolism of carbohydrate, fat, and protein ².

91 Some studies have shown a positive association between upper/lower body strength and
92 swimming success. For example, Keiner et al ³ reported several strong correlations
93 between a range of strength tests (bench press, squats and countermovement jumps, CMJ)
94 and swimming performance for sprints between 15-100m, and particularly for the shorter
95 distances up to 25m. It has also been shown that the maximum velocity and force
96 generated during the pull-up exercise correlates highly with swimming velocity ⁴⁻⁵. The
97 study by Pérez-Olea et al ⁴, examined the validity of the CMJ and the pull-up (PU)
98 exercise as predictors of swimming performance. The researchers concluded that a single
99 maximal PU could be used to predict swimming performance in short distances among
100 competitive swimmers, highlighting the importance of upper-limb strength in swimming.
101 Moreover, the inclusion of upper-body strength training into the training regimens
102 appears beneficial in improving performance and the propulsive forces applied in the
103 water ⁶⁻⁸. Morouço et al. ⁹ provided some evidence to support the notion that the ability
104 to exert force in the water is a decisive factor, particularly in sprint swimming.

105 The progressive development of the energy systems involves the design of an effective
106 swimming training plan by coaches, which in turn, represents a complex process
107 underpinning the relationship between training stimulation and recovery ². It is well
108 known that correct periodization of swimming and strength training in swimming and the
109 associated physiological and biomechanical adaptations lead to improved race
110 performance in the main events ¹⁰⁻¹².

111 The heavy demands of training for competitive swimming might cause local muscular
112 fatigue and inhibit the development of maximal swimming power during periods of the
113 training cycle. For example, 200 m swimming led to an acute drop in movement execution
114 velocity during the latter stages of a 200m trial due to neuromuscular fatigue, that can
115 also be associated with training overload, and possible muscle failure ¹³. Stachowicz and
116 Milde ¹⁴ examined the changes in thrust force in five elite swimmers over a season,
117 concluding that all the participants achieved the highest maximum thrust force in the same
118 periods of the training cycle (winter and summer competition period). Yet, there is a
119 scarcity of studies exploring how race-induced neuromuscular fatigue may change over
120 the season in the upper and lower limbs after 50 m, 100 m, and 200 m swimming events.
121 Such research would have the potential to make a contribution to the limited body of
122 knowledge in this field.

123 The aim of this study was to analyze the performance in pull-up velocity and jump height
124 before and after 50 m, 100 m and 200 m swimming events in two different stages of the
125 season: preparatory and competitive periods of a traditional periodization model. It was
126 hypothesized that swimming performance, jump height and pull-up performance would
127 be improved in the competitive phase compared to the preparation phase. It was also

128 hypothesized that jump height and pull-up velocity would be reduced immediately post-
129 race in both phases, but with potentially less post-race decrement in performance during
130 the competitive phase than in the preparation phase. Finally, it was hypothesized that
131 changes in swimming performance across the season phases would be associated with
132 corresponding changes in jump height and pull-up velocity.

133 **Materials and Methods**

134 *Participants*

135 The study was approved by the local university ethics committee (UNNE-2020-010), and
136 the swimmers and their coach provided written approval for retrospective analysis. This
137 was conducted in accordance with the Helsinki Declaration. The swimmers involved were
138 16 males (height 179 ± 7 cm; mass 70 ± 8 kg; age: 18 ± 2 years; mean \pm SD; 580 ± 107
139 Fédération Internationale De Natation points of best competitive performance) and all
140 were sprinters/middle-distance specialists (50-100-200m). Unfortunately, we couldn't
141 recruit females from the same squads as the female swimmers were unable to perform the
142 pull-up test satisfactorily. Training for swimmers included general training for 50-200m,
143 with other sessions focused more on sprinting or middle distance. All swimmers were
144 classified as Tier 3 (Tier 3: Highly Trained/National Level) according to the classification
145 framework of McKay et al ¹⁵. Furthermore, the participants reported no physical injuries
146 in the 6 months prior to, and during the study. Between the competitions, two swimmers
147 changed swimming stroke or race distance and were excluded from the analysis the stroke
148 and distance remained the same for the remaining 14 swimmers (Table 1). All swimmers
149 provided written informed consent after a detailed description of the study procedures,
150 and parental/guardian consent was included for those swimmers under 18 eight years old.

151 *Data collection*

152 We collected data at competitive race events for in-water swimming performance, as well
153 as dry-land pull-up and countermovement jump performance. All swimmers were
154 familiarized with both protocols because they were enrolled in a talent identification
155 program carried out by the regional swimming federation. Additionally, two experienced
156 researchers conducted all of the tests and visually checked them in order to ensure
157 reproducibility of technique and protocol application. In our case, each experienced
158 researcher collected data for each test (Pull up and CMJ). We have calculated the ICC for
159 CMJ (pre and post measurements) in the preparatory period as 0.81 and in the competition
160 period as 0.93, while the ICC for pull-ups was 0.78 and 0.47 respectively. Swimming race
161 times were collected during regional swimming races by professional personnel
162 employed by the local swimming federation, using electronic touchpads. To avoid any
163 influence of fatigue developed during the competitions, we only collected data during the
164 first event in which they competed in the heats. The pull-up tests and CMJ were
165 performed in a large, quiet room inside the facility and near the pool. The pull-ups were
166 performed using a standard steel bar of 3.81 cm in diameter (1.5 inches), standing 2.5 m
167 from the ground. Mean Velocity (m/s) during the pull-up was calculated using the Vitruve
168 linear encoder (Speed4Lifts, Madrid, Spain), previously validated ¹⁶ and used by our
169 research team ⁵. Specifically, this linear encoder comes in the portable form of an 8 cm³
170 box, equipped with an extensible wire that is attachable via a Velcro strap. The strap was
171 securely attached at the hip level. Moreover, the Vitruve linear encoder is embedded with
172 a smartphone app that allows for insertion of the subject's height and body mass,
173 consequently calculating specific performances in a selected exercise (in this case, the

174 pull-up). Swimmers performed 2 pull-up attempts, selecting the fastest trial. Vertical
175 jump performance was assessed using CMJ height, assessed using an optical
176 measurement system (Optojumpnext, Microgate, Bolzano, Italy). Swimmers performed
177 2 attempts of each CMJ, selecting the highest jump.

178 *Experimental design*

179 Although a training program was followed by all swimmers, the research design was
180 primarily observational (i.e. we did not intervene in the content of the swimming
181 training), as withholding such training from a control group is neither ethical nor feasible
182 in such trained populations. The training programs were therefore designed and
183 implemented by the coaches. In swimming, such observational studies (research not
184 interfering with training scheduling or regimens) have been often used in the past¹⁷. The
185 protocol of the programme design is shown in figure 1.

186 ***Figure 1*** around here

187 *Procedure*

188 The data were obtained during the same regional level swimming competition that took
189 place in October, 8 weeks after pre-season training (PREP), and May during the
190 competitive season (COMP), 6 weeks before national swimming championship, and in
191 the same short-course (25 m) swimming pool with similar atmospheric conditions.
192 Between the data collection in October and May (total 28 weeks), all three coaches
193 voluntarily reported training information regarding volume, intensity, dryland sessions
194 and competitions for research purposes only

195 As shown in Figure 1, the swimmers first executed 30 min of warm-up in the official
196 period set aside for this purpose. Prior to the start of the race, the participants were
197 instructed to perform two maximal explosive PU tests, according to the procedure shown
198 in Sorgente et al⁵, and two maximal CMJs in that order. For all tests, participants were
199 fully dried and completed tests barefoot on a dry surface and wearing only swimsuits.
200 Participants were instructed to pull-up “as strong and fast as possible” and to jump “as
201 high as possible” before each repetition. A short recovery was permitted between trials.
202 At 5 minutes after the completion of the race, participants repeated the same two pull-ups
203 and CMJs, performed in the same order. To ensure the procedure for measuring pull-ups
204 5 min before (PRE) and 5 min after the swimming races (POST), we employed a
205 stopwatch. According to Kraemer and Fleck¹⁸, we used the 5 min rest period to ensure
206 enough recovery pre-competition and to also establish the same rest period after the
207 competition.

208 *Periodization*

209 A traditional periodization model was followed, using three macrocycles covering the
210 winter competition (December), Spring championships (April), and the main competition
211 (June) organized in 2023. Overall, the aim of the first macrocycle was to develop general
212 fitness and specific qualities orientated to the main event for each swimmer. The goals of
213 second and third macrocycles were to develop specific qualities required for the different
214 events (i.e. aerobic power, race speed, lactate production, maximal strength, etc.),
215 culminating in the taper and competition. All training intensity distribution performed in
216 the pool was categorized into five intensity levels⁵. Intensities Z1, Z2, and Z3 represented
217 swimming speeds below ($\sim 2 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{l}^{-1}$), equal to ($\sim 4 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{l}^{-1}$), and slightly above (~ 6

218 mmol·l⁻¹) the onset of blood lactate accumulation, respectively. High-intensity swimming
219 that elicits blood lactate levels of ~10 mmol·l⁻¹ was defined as intensity Z4 and maximal
220 intensity swimming as intensity Z5¹⁹. Dryland sessions are included as a part of the
221 preparation involving resistance training. Resistance training sessions focused on
222 maximum strength (i.e. 85 – 90% 1RM), power (i.e. 60 – 75% 1RM) and power
223 endurance (i.e. 50 – 60 % 1RM) with resistance exercises, also including core training to
224 enhance stability and prevent injuries common in swimmers. The regional swimming
225 competitions were targeted by coaches to obtain classification times for the subsequent
226 national championship held in December and main competition in June. The ranges of
227 training volumes and intensities experienced by the swimmers distributed across the
228 season is shown in Table 1.

229 ***Table 1*** around here

230

231 *Statistical analysis*

232 All data were analysed using IBM SPSS 27 and results are presented as Mean ± SD, with
233 an alpha level of 0.05. Comparison of swimming performance from PREP to COMP was
234 completed using mean race velocity (v_{mean}) to normalize between-subject differences in
235 race distance. A paired samples t-test with effect size (Cohen's d) was used, data were
236 normally distributed (Shapiro-Wilk test). CMJ data were analysed to explore effects of
237 race (PRE vs POST) and season phase (PREP vs COMP), using a 2-way repeated
238 measures ANOVA, with normally distributed data. Post-hoc pairwise comparisons were
239 used to calculate effect sizes (η_p^2). Pull-ups data were analysed to explore effects of race
240 (PRE vs POST) and season phase (PREP vs COMP), using Wilcoxon signed rank tests,
241 as the data were not normally distributed, with effect sizes reported ($r = Z/\sqrt{n}$). Pearson
242 correlations were used to explore relationships between the observed changes in swim
243 performance (PREP to COMP, %) and corresponding changes in CMJ and pull-ups
244 performance (Changes in PRE values from PREP to COMP, %). Effect size
245 interpretations were small, moderate or large as follows (if greater than): η_p^2 - 0.01, 0.06,
246 0.14; d - 0.2, 0.5, 0.8, r - 0.1, 0.3, 0.5²⁰. Also, the test—retest relative reliability was
247 assessed using the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) test and interpreted as follows:
248 as poor (<0.5), moderate (0.5–0.75), good (0.76–0.9), and excellent (>0.9)²¹.

249

250 **Results**

251 Swimming race performance improved significantly from the preparatory to the
252 competition phase (1.8 ± 3.2 %, $p = 0.044$, $d = 0.60$, moderate effect), as shown in Figure
253 2. However, performance for two swimmers decreased by approximately ~3-4%. Table 2
254 shows the race distances, strokes and performance times.

255 ***Figure 2*** around here

256

257 ***Table 2 *** around here

258 For the CMJ, there were significant main effects of race (PRE to POST race, $F_{(1,13)} = 5.19$,
259 $p = 0.04$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.29$) and season (PREP to COMP, $F_{(1,13)} = 12.33$, $p = 0.004$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.49$),

260 but no significant interaction effect ($F_{(1,13)} = 1.42$, $p = 0.26$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.10$), as shown in Figure
261 3. There was a large effect for the decrease in CMJ performance following a competitive
262 race (Mean difference 1.64 cm, $p = 0.04$, $d = 2.28$) and a large effect for the improvement
263 in CMJ performance from the PREP to COMP phases of the season (Mean difference
264 2.29 cm, $p = 0.004$, $d = 3.52$).

265 ***Figure 3*** around here

266

267 For pull-ups, there were no significant changes in pull-ups velocity from PRE to POST
268 race in PREP (0.95 ± 0.05 m/s vs. 0.93 ± 0.06 m/s, $Z = 1.36$, $p = 0.18$, $r = 0.36$, moderate
269 effect) or COMP season phases (0.96 ± 0.05 m/s vs. 0.94 ± 0.05 m/s, $Z = 1.87$, $p = 0.06$,
270 $r = 0.50$, moderate-to-large effect), nor any significant changes from the PREP to COMP
271 season phases for the PRE (0.95 ± 0.05 m/s vs. 0.96 ± 0.05 m/s, $Z = 0.49$, $p = 0.62$, $r =$
272 0.13) or POST (0.93 ± 0.06 m/s vs. 0.94 ± 0.05 m/s, $Z = 0.40$, $p = 0.69$, $r = 0.011$) race
273 tests, with considerable inter-individual variation, as shown in Figure 4.

274 ***Figure 4*** around here

275 Finally, there were no significant correlations between the changes in swimming race
276 velocity from PREP to COMP (% change) and the corresponding changes in CMJ ($r =$
277 0.27 , $p = 0.349$) or pull-ups performance ($r = -0.40$, $p = 0.16$).

278 Discussion

279 This study explored the performance and changes in pull up and countermovement jump
280 tests before and after a swimming race in both early and late competitive phases of the
281 season. There were significant improvements in swimming and CMJ performance
282 between the early and late competitive phases in this group of well-trained swimmers, in
283 support of our hypotheses. There was evidence of a race-induced fatigue effect in CMJ
284 performance in both competition phases, with a similar size of CMJ decrement at both
285 points. In contrast, there were no significant changes in pull-up velocity either between
286 competition phases or from PRE to POST race, despite moderate-to-large effect sizes.
287 Interestingly, the changes in swimming performance and CMJ performance across the
288 season were not significantly associated.

289 The improved performance times may be attributed to the progressive increases in
290 training load. The correct organization of swim training within a specific periodized
291 mesocycle has been associated with peak performance in elite swimmers^{2,17}. However,
292 it should be noted that the training volume prescribed in these previous studies is higher
293 than the volume presented by the coaches analysed in our study, or at least our swimmers
294 were at the lower end of ranges presented. According to our coaches, they reported a
295 monthly training volume ranging from 75 to 153 km (Table 1). This training volume is
296 comparable to the lower range of average weekly training volume (20 – 60 km) reported
297 by Kilen et al.²² in Swedish elite swimmers. These swimmers were primarily competing
298 in events ranging from 50 to 200 m. Hellard et al.¹⁷ also reported that sprinters had higher
299 weekly training volumes than most of our swimmers, ranging from 29-37km and middle-
300 distance swimmers from 39-42km, depending on the type of macrocycles used.

301 Our findings align with the commonly used periodization model for endurance events,
302 known as traditional periodization, which involves varying Training Intensity

303 Distribution (TID) approaches across different training periods ²³. It is evident (Table 1)
304 that coaches allocated a significant portion of the swimming total training volume to
305 lower intensity Z1 and Z2, which typically account for over 80% of the total volume. The
306 remaining volume was dedicated to higher intensity training, as suggested by intervention
307 studies utilizing a five-zone model. It is worth noting that the coaches did not explicitly
308 define the underlying model of periodization they followed, as their primary focus was
309 on achieving specific combinations of workloads rather than emphasizing the specific
310 type of periodization employed; as shown when Gonzalez Rave et al ² analyzed the main
311 characteristics of endurance training for highly-trained swimmers, volume and periodized
312 models. The data we collected, however, suggests that different types of training were
313 implemented in wave-like cycles throughout the season.

314 Perhaps surprisingly, a typical tapering approach for peak performance, with a peak in
315 training load approximately six weeks before the competition, followed by a modest
316 decrease in the following two weeks ^{2,11}, was not evident. This may be attributed to the
317 fact that the competition held in May was not the main national competition targeted by
318 the swimmers. The POST test therefore preceded this taper and potential improvements
319 may well therefore be under-represented if anything.

320 Coaches often prescribe strength and conditioning training programs to improve
321 swimmers' muscle power and strength ²⁴. This is potentially why both the
322 countermovement jump (CMJ) and performance times may have improved in our study,
323 because all coaches in this study have prescribed dry-land training sessions leading to
324 improvements in both muscle power and strength in swimming and on dry-land
325 conditions. Such dry-land training included strength and power exercises for both the
326 upper and lower body. In this context, strength and power training have been shown to
327 enhance swimmers' ability to apply increased force on the wall during turns, with a shorter
328 period of wall contact ²⁵⁻²⁶. However, we did not demonstrate a significant correlation
329 between improvements in CMJ and swimming performance. This is likely explained as
330 although turns and starts represent an important contribution to sprint performance in a
331 short-course pool especially ²⁷, there are many other components that contribute to
332 swimming race performance. The sizes of CMJ improvements observed between PREP
333 and COMP phases (mean 7.6%) are in line with a previous meta-analysis of weight-lifting
334 training effects on CMJ (7.5%) ²⁸.

335 Secondly, we demonstrated that there was a significant decrement in CMJ performance
336 within 5-minutes of completing the race (POST vs PRE, Figure 3). Monitoring
337 neuromuscular status was aligned to the sensitivity of the CMJ to detect the effects of
338 fatigue and supercompensation on performance as shown the meta-analysis of Claudino
339 et al ²⁹. We reported larger effect sizes for the CMJ decrement, yet with a mean decrement
340 of 3.8% and a consistent pattern in participants, this emphasises the utility of this measure
341 in our population. In contrast to our hypotheses, the magnitude of the race-induced
342 decrement of CMJ performance was not different between the PRE and COMP phases
343 (no interaction effect). In retrospect, this finding is perhaps not surprising as although
344 training will likely have reduced underpinning mechanisms, the physiological demand of
345 the race has also increased due to the improvements in swimming race performance that
346 were observed. As such, the magnitude of the fatiguing effect remains similar at both time
347 points. Combined, our findings on CMJ and race performance (mean improvement 1.7%)
348 align well with Ribeiro et al.³⁰, who demonstrated that after eight weeks of training
349 targeted specifically for a 100 m front crawl competition, performance improved by
350 3.06%, with post-race decreases in measures such as peak force (16.26%) and maximal

351 voluntary contraction force (9.33%). It is noted that 2 of our participants showed large
352 decrements in race performance, which could potentially reflect under-training, over-
353 training, or even a pacing strategy adopted during the heats phase of the competition.

354 In contrast to our hypotheses, there was no significant change in the corresponding pull-
355 up velocity from PREP to COMP phases. Similarly, we could evidence no consistent
356 change in pull-up velocity from PRE to POST race (Figure 4). The contrast with the CMJ
357 data may suggest differences between upper and lower-body improvements in strength
358 and power, which could reflect different priorities in resistance training. Alternatively, it
359 could relate to the specificity of the tests, with swimmers performing more CMJs than
360 PUs within their resistance training. There is unfortunately insufficient detail in the
361 training programmes provided to further explore this speculation. However, considering
362 the individual variation in the patterns of change in the pull-up velocity (Figure 4) with
363 some improving and others getting worse, it appears more likely that performance in this
364 test was less reliable as shown the results of the ICC for pull-ups compared with the ICC
365 for CMJ. As such, reduced signal-to-noise ratio may have masked any demonstrable
366 changes in upper body strength and power, contributing to the lack of a statistical
367 difference. This is supported with moderate effect sizes and illustrated by a number of
368 swimmers showing improvement being offset by others getting worse, sometimes
369 considerably so. These findings are consistent with the previous study conducted by
370 Sorgente et al.⁵, which despite a trend for reduction in both velocity and force generated
371 in the single pull-up test shortly after a swimming competition, the changes were not
372 statistically significant. To the best of our knowledge, we have not found any other studies
373 that specifically compare pre- and post-competition pull-up tests. In future, it is
374 recommended that further familiarisation and reliability testing is conducted with these
375 swimmers to confirm the usefulness and sensitivity of the test with these specific athletes,
376 despite this being demonstrated in our previous work with swimmers.

377 Finally, there were no significant relationships between the size of season-improvements
378 in swimming performance with changes in CMJ or pull-ups performance. However, in
379 further support of our previous point regarding the multi-factorial nature of competition
380 performance, it is important to note that an increase in strength does not necessarily
381 translate to improved swimming performance, as technical factors also play a crucial role.
382 Swimmers not only need to develop high levels of force but also apply them effectively
383 to maximize propulsion in the water⁴. For example, Hermosilla et al³¹ found a lack of
384 correlation between SJ-CMJ, and forces produced in underwater vs. dryland conditions.
385 In this sense coaches and swimmers should perform specific tests in water for evaluating
386 force production in turns and understanding the limitations of the dryland tests. An
387 alternative explanation could be that gains in strength and power have not yet translated
388 to improved swimming performance as there may be a lag between harnessing
389 physiological adaptations through to improved technique and performance. An optimal
390 transfer from training requires a specific exercise program and a dryland general strength
391 training is potentially useful for the purposes of increasing body mass, decreasing the risk
392 of soft-tissue injuries, and developing core stability³².

393 This observational study has provided some useful information on pre and post-race
394 measures in early and late season. However, there are some limitations in the present
395 study that should be taken into consideration. Firstly, the population is limited in size and
396 restricted to training approaches of three coaches. This may limit the generalisability of
397 the findings, although will still provide a frame of reference and some suggestions for
398 other coaches and inform other future studies. Secondly, as stated a priori, it was not

399 possible to include a control group across the season. Therefore, it is not possible to
400 conclude a cause-and-effect relationship. However, these are well-trained individuals,
401 very familiar with the protocols and also less-likely to have experienced large changes in
402 growth and maturation. Finally, some more detailed analysis of the dry-land resistance
403 work would have facilitated further exploration of speculated rationales for some of the
404 findings presented.

405 **Practical applications**

406 This research supports the use of CMJ performance in trained swimmers, easily assessed
407 with only 2 jumps performed pool-side using an optical measurement system, to track
408 both acute alterations in neuromuscular fatigue, as well as longitudinal training
409 improvements. In contrast, use of the explosive pull-up test with a LPT, proved less
410 sensitive to such changes, at least in this population, despite familiarisation. However,
411 further studies with larger sample sizes may further establish these approaches across
412 other trained swimming populations. The lack of association between longitudinal
413 changes in race performance and changes in CMJ performance emphasises the value in
414 monitoring multiple aspects of performance in trained swimmers to evaluate training
415 progress and monitor athlete recovery. Future studies should track individual variation in
416 training load, including resistance training, against the improvements in CMJ and race
417 performance to explore the relative importance of underpinning mechanisms.

418 **Conclusions**

419 Our study observed that swimming race performance improved from the preparatory
420 phase to the competition phase over the season. Furthermore, there was an improvement
421 in CMJ performance from the PREP to COMP phases of the season. However, there were
422 no significant differences in pull-up velocity from PRE to post-race in either the PREP or
423 COMP season phases, and no significant changes from the PREP to COMP season
424 phases.

425 Based on these findings, we advise caution in using the pull-ups test as an evaluation tool
426 for in-water performance in similar groups of swimmers. While the CMJ test
427 demonstrated more reliability, particularly when the competition is held in a short course
428 pool, it may be a more suitable option for assessing performance in swimmers.

429

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433

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Table 1. Volume and Intensity measured in training zones over a season.

Month	October	November	December	January	February	March	April	May
Total volume								
(Km)	98,1-129	120-139	120-129	124-130	134-140	82-154	75-87	128-153
volume Z1 (km)	14-50	45-63	45-55	40-52	40-66	25-62	30-43	40-64
volume Z2 (km)	40-55,6	40-55	40-52	50-51	47-50	30-62	25-33	27-62
volume Z3 (km)	15,3-26	17-36	15-30	40-50	13-45	20-21	20-35	20-50
volume Z4 (km)	1,6-3,9	1-3,9	1-4,5	2,5-3,9	2,7-3,5	2,2-4,5	3,1-4,5	4,5-4,6
volume Z5 (km)	0,28-0,4	0,4-0,3	0,2-0,6	0,8-1,2	1,3-1,6	0,8-2,5	1,1-1,5	1,4-1,5
Dryland sessions								
(sessions/week)	3-8	4-6	4-6	3-4	3	3-4	2-3	3
competitions								
(number per month)	2	1-3	1-2	1-2	0-2	1-2	1-2	1

Note: Z1 : <3/mmol [La-]. Z2: ~4/mmol [La-]. Z3: <6/mmol [La-]. Z4 ~10/mmol [La-]. Z5: Max effort.

Dryland sessions: weekly sessions. Competitions per month.

Table 2 – Swimming performance for each participant during competitions in the early (PREP) and late (COMP) season phases.

Swimming Stroke	Race distance (m)	PREP Race time (mm:ss)	COMP Race time (mm:ss)
Backstroke	100	1:01.56	1:00.91
Breaststroke	50	0:34.21	0:31.61
Breaststroke	200	2:18.52	2:23.15
Butterfly	200	2:41.76	2:32.06
Butterfly	50	0:26.23	0:25.96
Butterfly	50	0:26.10	0:25.54
Freestyle	100	0:53.12	0:51.60
Breaststroke	50	0:32.58	0:32.49
Breaststroke	50	0:31.34	0:30.88
Backstroke	100	1:00.46	0:58.79
Butterfly	50	0:28.49	0:27.40
Backstroke	100	1:06.95	1:06.10
Breaststroke	200	2:39.27	2:38.13
Breaststroke	50	0:31.68	0:33.01

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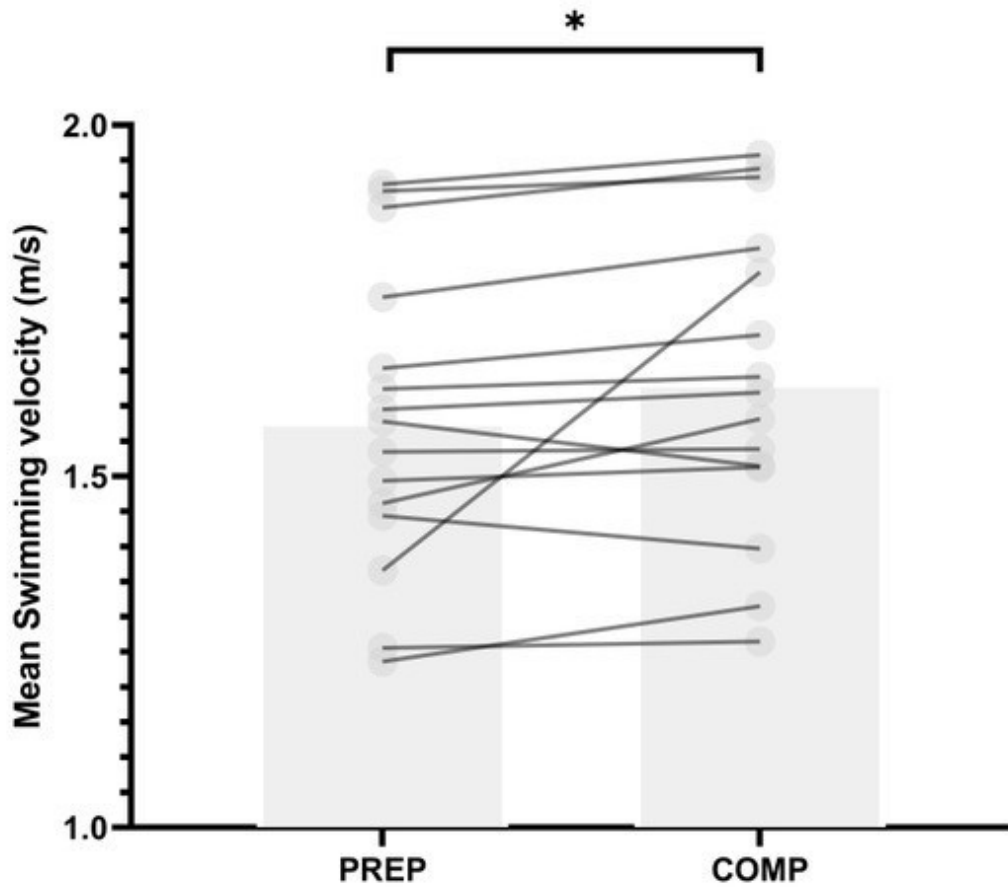
544

545 Figure 1



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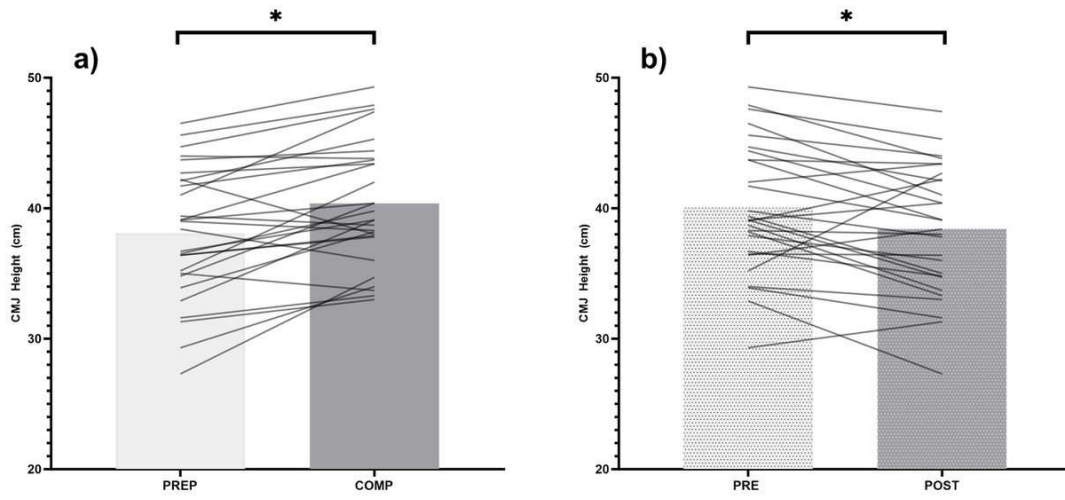
547 Figure 2



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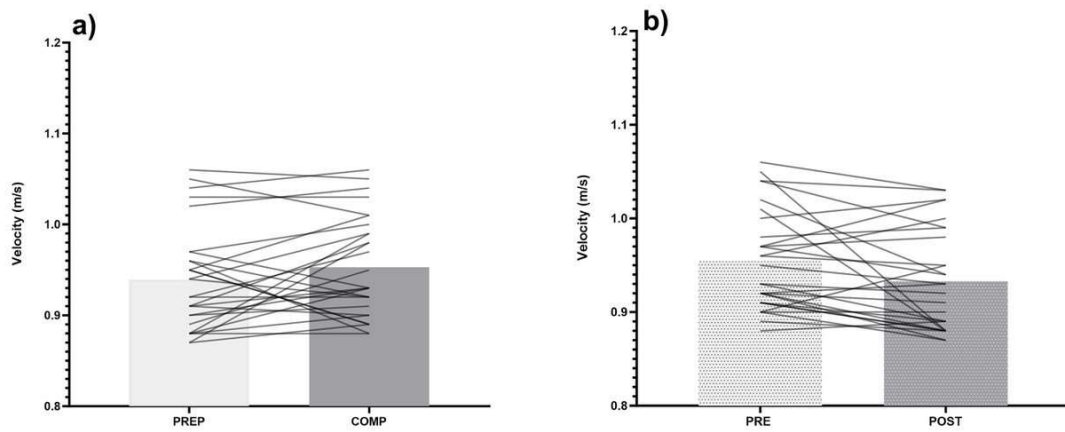
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550 Figure 3



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552 Figure 4



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