



Swansea University
Prifysgol Abertawe



Cronfa - Swansea University Open Access Repository

This is an author produced version of a paper published in :
International Journal of Sports Medicine

Cronfa URL for this paper:

<http://cronfa.swan.ac.uk/Record/cronfa26346>

Paper:

Bezodis, N., Salo, A. & Trewartha, G. (2012). Measurement Error in Estimates of Sprint Velocity from a Laser Displacement Measurement Device. *International Journal of Sports Medicine*, 33(06), 439-444.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1055/s-0031-1301313>

This article is brought to you by Swansea University. Any person downloading material is agreeing to abide by the terms of the repository licence. Authors are personally responsible for adhering to publisher restrictions or conditions. When uploading content they are required to comply with their publisher agreement and the SHERPA RoMEO database to judge whether or not it is copyright safe to add this version of the paper to this repository.

<http://www.swansea.ac.uk/iss/researchsupport/cronfa-support/>

1 *Title:*

2 Measurement error in estimates of sprint velocity from a laser displacement measurement
3 device

4

5 *Authors:*

6 Neil E. Bezodis^{a,b}, Aki I. T. Salo^a, Grant Trewartha^a

7 ^aSport, Health and Exercise Science, University of Bath, UK.

8 ^bSchool of Sport, Health and Applied Science, St Mary's University College, Twickenham,
9 UK.

10

11 *Corresponding author:*

12 Neil E. Bezodis, School of Sport, Health and Applied Science, St Mary's University College,
13 Waldegrave Road, Twickenham, London, UK. TW1 4SX.

14 *E-mail:* bezodisn@smuc.ac.uk

15

16 *Abstract*

17 This study aimed to determine the measurement error associated with estimates of velocity
18 from a laser-based device during different phases of a maximal athletic sprint. Laser-based
19 displacement data were obtained from 10 sprinters completing a total of 89 sprints and were
20 fitted with a fifth-order polynomial function which was differentiated to obtain instantaneous
21 velocity data. These velocity estimates were compared against criterion high-speed video
22 velocities at either 1, 5, 10, 30 or 50 m using a Bland-Altman analysis to assess bias and
23 random error. Bias was highest at 1 m (+0.41 m/s) and tended to decrease as the
24 measurement distance increased, with values less than +0.10 m/s at 30 and 50 m. Random
25 error was more consistent between distances, and reached a minimum value (± 0.11 m/s) at
26 10 m. Laser devices offer a potentially useful time-efficient tool for assessing between-
27 subject or between-session performance from the mid-acceleration and maximum velocity
28 phases (i.e. at 10 m and beyond), although only differences exceeding 0.22 to 0.30 m/s
29 should be considered genuine. However, laser data should not be used during the first 5 m of
30 a sprint, and are likely of limited use for assessing within-subject variation in performance
31 during a single session.

32

33 *Key words:* athletics, biomechanics, methods, performance, running, sprinting.

34

35 *Introduction*

36 Biomechanical research in sprinting commonly restricts analysis to a single step within a
37 specific phase of a sprint [5, 16, 17]. However, researchers are often also interested in
38 performance during multiple steps or phases, and horizontal velocity-time profiles from larger
39 sections of a sprint are therefore considered [4, 8, 21]. One time-efficient method of
40 obtaining these velocity-time curves is through a laser distance measurement (LDM) device
41 aimed at the back of the sprinter [4, 8]. These LDM devices have been found to produce
42 valid and reliable static measures of distance at 10, 30, 50 and 70 m when several samples
43 are averaged [13]. However, individual samples are less reliable [13] which could potentially
44 be problematic for dynamic activities like sprinting. The reliability of LDM velocity data
45 obtained during sprinting trials has previously been assessed [13], but was limited by
46 comparison against linear hip velocities over a specific 3 m distance. This approach may
47 have provided an artificially close match with the 'lower part of the runner's back' measured
48 by the LDM device because the horizontal within-step mechanics of a single point on the
49 lumbar region (similar to the hip) differ from those of the centre of mass (CM) during running
50 [24]. This could be of particular importance if data from the acceleration phase of a sprint are
51 required, as sprinters become more upright as they accelerate out of the starting blocks [19].
52 Furthermore, horizontal velocity fluctuates during every step of a sprint due to the antero-
53 posterior forces [18], and thus instantaneous velocity data, or velocity data averaged over a
54 predefined distance, may not be from the same phases within a step. For example, at the
55 exact distance of interest, one sprinter could be at the end of the braking phase whereas
56 another is at the end of the propulsive phase [23]. This is clearly an important issue for
57 applied sprint performance measurement, as velocity data at specific distances are only truly
58 comparable between sprinters or trials if they are independent of fluctuations due to the
59 phase of the step cycle.

60

61 In an attempt to reduce the fluctuations in velocity-time profiles due to both the genuine
62 within-step fluctuations and the inherent noise (e.g. Figure 1), LDM device (and radar) data

63 have previously been fitted with mathematical functions [2, 8, 21]. However, these velocity
64 curves have only been assessed against split times over 3 to 10 m intervals from video or
65 photocell data [2, 8, 21], and the measurement error in velocity estimates at discrete
66 distances during different phases of a sprint remains unknown. The aim of this study was
67 therefore to determine the measurement error in velocity data obtained with an LDM device
68 during different phases of a maximal sprint, and consequently to evaluate the usability of
69 LDM devices in order to analyse sprinters' velocity profiles.

70

71

72 *Materials & Methods*

73 Seven male (mean \pm SD: age = 23 ± 4 years, mass = 78 ± 5 kg, height = 1.78 ± 0.03 m,
74 100 m personal best (PB) = 10.76 ± 0.64 s) and three female (mean \pm SD: age = 21 ± 1
75 years, mass = 64 ± 2 kg, height = 1.66 ± 0.02 m, 100 m PB = 12.48 ± 0.35 s) sprinters
76 agreed to participate in this study and provided written informed consent following standard
77 ethical procedures [14]. This cohort (incorporating both genders and a range of PBs) was
78 selected so that the results would be applicable across all populations of sprinters. Whilst this
79 would clearly affect the observed velocity magnitudes at different distances, the aim of this
80 study was to assess the error associated with measurement equipment, and thus the nature
81 of the cohort would not negatively influence the results [1, 3, 7].

82

83 Data were collected at outdoor track-based training sessions. The LDM device (LDM-300C,
84 Jenoptik, Germany; 100 Hz) was positioned on a tripod at a height of approximately 1 m,
85 20 m behind the start line. This exact distance was determined using a static object prior to
86 each session and was used to provide the reference distance of 0 m (start line). A high-
87 speed video camera (MotionPro HS-1, Redlake, USA; 200 Hz) was located perpendicular to
88 the running lane, 35 m from the lane centre. At each session, the camera was perpendicular
89 to a different distance from the start line so that video data were collected at 1, 5, 10, 30 and
90 50 m. The camera field of view was approximately 5.0 m wide, and an area of 4.50×1.60 m

91 (2.25 m either side of the distance of interest) was calibrated with four corner points in order
92 to obtain displacement data using projective scaling. A shutter speed of 1/1000 s was used
93 and images were captured at a resolution of 1280 × 1024 pixels. Each sprint commenced
94 from starting blocks following standard 'on your marks' and 'set' commands before a sounder
95 was activated to provide the starting signal. Video data collection was initiated manually just
96 prior to the sprinter entering the field of view. LDM device data collection was initiated
97 manually at the 'set' command, and the device was aimed at the lower part of the runner's
98 back (hereafter termed 'lumbar point'). All laser data processing took place in Matlab™
99 (v. 7.4.0, The MathWorks™, USA).

100

101 The raw displacement data obtained with the LDM device were fitted with a fifth-order
102 polynomial function. The polynomial order was selected to provide a close match to the
103 known underlying trends of the displacement and velocity profiles whilst eliminating any
104 within-step velocity fluctuations. The polynomial start point was identified from where the raw
105 displacement values increased and remained greater than 2 SD above the mean noisy pre-
106 start signal level, and the polynomial end point was 50 data points after displacement
107 exceeded 60 m. This displacement polynomial was analytically differentiated with respect to
108 time in order to yield a fourth-order representation of the velocity profile. Figure 1 shows an
109 example of the noisy velocity data obtained from numerically differentiating the raw LDM
110 device displacement data and the smooth fourth-order polynomial representation of the
111 velocity profile from one trial. For each trial, the time at which displacement equalled or first
112 exceeded the target distance was identified, and the corresponding velocity value was
113 recorded.

114

115 ****Figure 1 near here****

116

117 The raw video files were digitised in Peak Motus® (v. 8.5, Vicon, United Kingdom), exactly
118 replicating previously reported procedures [6], before all subsequent video data processing

119 took place in Matlab™ (v. 7.4.0, The MathWorks™, USA). Whole-body CM displacements
120 were calculated using segmental inertia data [10] and a summation of segmental moments
121 approach [25]. Inertia data for the feet were taken from Winter [25] as they allowed the
122 creation of a linked-segment model, and 0.2 kg was added to each foot to account for the
123 mass of each spiked shoe [5, 15]. Raw high-speed video CM velocities were calculated using
124 second central difference equations [20].

125

126 To determine the criterion high-speed video velocities at each of the target distances (i.e. 1,
127 5, 10, 30 or 50 m) without any influence of the phase of the step cycle, the following
128 procedure was undertaken. The first frame in which the raw CM displacement equalled or
129 exceeded the target distance was identified. The phase of the step cycle (i.e. stance or flight)
130 that the sprinter was in during this frame was identified, as was the closest adjacent
131 contrasting phase (i.e. flight or stance). The combined duration of these stance and flight
132 phases yielded the duration of the step cycle occurring at the target distance (at the 1 m
133 mark, the sprinters were typically in mid-stance, and as the two adjacent flight times were
134 often considerably different in length, the mean duration of the two flight phases was used in
135 obtaining total step duration). The determined step duration was then applied so that it was
136 evenly spaced either side of the frame in which the target distance was reached (e.g. if the
137 determined step duration was 41 frames and the target distance was reached in frame
138 number 67, the step cycle at the target distance was deemed to commence at frame 47 and
139 terminate at frame 87). This yielded a complete step cycle starting from an arbitrary point, but
140 in which the sprinter passed the specific target distance exactly halfway through the cycle.
141 The mean value of all raw CM velocities during this step cycle thus provided a value
142 representing the velocity of the sprinter at the target distance which was independent from
143 the phase of the step cycle the sprinter was in. Although the raw digitised video data
144 contained noise, this would likely have had minimal effect on these velocities over a
145 complete step cycle due to its presumed random nature. To confirm this, one trial (from
146 10 m) was redigitised on ten separate occasions to quantify any effects of noise in the video

147 data on the determined velocity value. Following a check for normality of these data, the
148 reliability of the high-speed video velocity data was determined by calculating a co-efficient of
149 variation (CV; standard deviation / mean [22]).

150

151 A Bland-Altman 95% limits of agreement approach [1, 7] was selected to assess the
152 measurement error (separated into bias and random error) of the LDM device estimates
153 relative to the criterion video data, as this approach would not be affected by the deliberately
154 broad cohort [1, 3, 7]. These limits were calculated as the standard deviation of the
155 difference scores between the video and LDM-based velocity data multiplied by the critical t -
156 value for the sample size at each distance. Normality of the difference scores was checked,
157 and a heteroscedasticity correlation coefficient was calculated between the difference scores
158 and the mean score from both devices to assess for any proportional bias [3, 7].

159

160 In order to allow the determined measurement error to be considered in a practical context,
161 the range in criterion velocity data was calculated at 1, 10 and 50 m (the distances when all
162 athletes completed more than two trials at a single distance). A single mean within-session
163 range was then calculated from all athletes at each of these three distances. This provided
164 an example of the typical levels of within-session performance variation that could be
165 expected and thus allowed an acceptable level of measurement error to be determined for
166 application in similar coach-led training settings [3, 7]. As the data from 1 m were collected at
167 four different sessions for one subject, these data were also used to provide an example of
168 the expected variation between sessions across six months of the season as training
169 progressed through different phases.

170

171 *Results*

172 A total of 89 trials were recorded and analysed, with at least ten trials obtained from each of
173 the individual distances. The amount of trials at each distance was not even due to the
174 number of athletes present and number of trials completed at each of the training sessions.

175 The bias and random errors associated with the calculation of instantaneous velocities at 1,
176 5, 10, 30 and 50 m from the LDM device are presented in Table 1 and Figure 2. Bias was
177 highest at 1 m (+0.41 m/s) and lowest at 30 m (+0.06 m/s) and the magnitude of random
178 error at the five distances ranged from ± 0.11 m/s to ± 0.21 m/s. All data were normally
179 distributed and free from heteroscedasticity (all $r < 0.10$; Figure 2). The ten redigitisations of
180 one trial revealed the criterion velocity data to be highly reliable (velocity = 7.66 ± 0.01 m/s;
181 CV = 0.15%). This confirmed that the noise due to operator error in the digitising process
182 was random, and that averaging the values from the duration of an entire step cycle provided
183 a highly repeatable measure of average step velocity at a specific distance. This therefore
184 also allowed the expected performance variation data (Table 2) to be considered with
185 confidence. The within-session individual variation in criterion data was low at 1 and 10 m
186 (average range in velocities = 0.09 and 0.14 m/s, respectively) but considerably higher
187 (0.75 m/s) at 50 m. The between-session variation in performance was higher (range =
188 0.47 m/s at 1 m) than the within-session variation.

189

190 ****Table 1 near here****

191 ****Table 2 near here****

192 ****Figures 2a-e near here****

193

194

195 *Discussion*

196 This study determined the measurement error associated with LDM estimates of velocity
197 during different phases of a maximal effort sprint to evaluate how useful LDM devices are for
198 analysing sprint velocity profiles. It was found that the measurement error varied between
199 different phases of a sprint, with a general trend for the magnitude of the bias to decrease as
200 the measurement distance increased (Table 1). The random error exhibited a slightly
201 unexpected trend, with the 95% limits of agreement being highest during the first 5 m before
202 decreasing considerably at 10 m and then gradually increasing thereafter (Table 1). Finally,

203 the lack of heteroscedastic data at any of the five distances (Figure 2) demonstrates that the
204 magnitude of measurement error is not affected by any proportional bias across the range of
205 velocities at any given distance. Therefore, although LDM measurement error appears to be
206 influenced by how far away the sprinter is from the device (Table 1), it does not appear to be
207 affected by the velocity of the sprinter at each given distance.

208

209 The large bias during the early part of a sprint (particularly at 1 m) was not measurement
210 artefact. This bias was systematic and highlights the limitations of using an LDM device to
211 estimate velocity during early acceleration as it records the displacement of the lumbar point
212 instead of the CM. A retrospective analysis of synchronised video and LDM data from four
213 trials of a single sprinter revealed that the horizontal motion of the lumbar point differed from
214 that of the CM during the first second of a sprint (Figure 3). In the 'set' position the lumbar
215 point was on average 0.40 m behind the CM, but as the sprinter began to accelerate his
216 posture became more upright. One second after movement onset (at which point the sprinter
217 had typically covered just over 2 m), the lumbar point was only on average 0.15 m behind the
218 CM. The lumbar point was therefore covering a greater horizontal distance in the same
219 amount of time, thus explaining why the velocities from the LDM device were higher than the
220 criterion CM velocities (Table 1). There were also clear differences in the distance between
221 the CM and the lumbar point between these four trials during this first second of a sprint, and
222 as these were from a single sprinter and inter-athlete variation will likely exceed this (e.g.
223 Table 2), applying a fixed offset to account for any bias is not a feasible solution.

224

225 ****Figure 3 near here****

226

227 The horizontal distance between the CM and the lumbar point will never be likely to reach
228 zero because the CM should remain in front of the lumbar point throughout the duration of a
229 sprint. However, this distance will likely plateau as sprinters adopt a relatively consistent, and
230 more upright, posture as the sprint progresses. This was confirmed in the current study by

231 the considerably lower biases observed at distances beyond 1 m, particularly at 30 and 50 m
232 (Table 1). This also concurred with previous video-based data [24], whereby it was found that
233 although there is a temporal shift in the individual within-step fluctuations in horizontal
234 velocity between the CM and the lumbar point during constant velocity running, overall
235 changes in displacement and velocity across one step were similar. Therefore, by smoothing
236 out the within-step fluctuations in the raw LDM device data, a non-biased representation of
237 the motion of a sprinter can be obtained once they have adopted a more upright stance
238 beyond the early parts of a sprint.

239

240 The higher random error at 1 and 5 m (± 0.18 and ± 0.21 m/s, respectively) may be related to
241 the aforementioned inconsistency in tracking the lumbar point as the sprinter rises out of the
242 blocks. When these random errors are combined with the high bias during the early part of a
243 sprint, LDM device estimates of velocity prior to 10 m (i.e. the initial acceleration phase [11])
244 appear to contain unacceptably high levels of error relative to the expected levels of variation
245 in performance (Table 2). By the 10 m mark, random error had decreased (± 0.11 m/s),
246 before increasing slightly at the 30 and 50 m marks (± 0.13 and ± 0.15 m/s, respectively). This
247 gradual increase in random error from 10 to 50 m is likely due to the divergence of the laser
248 beam as the sprinter moved further from the start line because a greater area of the sprinter
249 was measured by the wider laser beam at these distances (beam diameter = 0.06 m at the
250 start line, 0.21 m at the 50 m mark). Movement of any segments near to the lumbar point,
251 any clothing movement, or even a large leg retraction and thus high foot displacement
252 behind the sprinter could therefore all have affected these velocity estimates. Also, any
253 movements of the LDM device itself by the operator have a larger pointing effect (deviation)
254 the further from the device the athlete travels.

255

256 The measurement error associated with the LDM device generally compares well against
257 other time-efficient devices used to obtain velocity estimates during sprinting. Based on
258 published differences in velocity estimates between tested devices and a criterion,

259 measurement errors comparable to those presented in the current study (i.e. 95% limits of
260 agreement using the standard deviation of the differences and the appropriate critical t -value)
261 can be calculated. Commonly used photocell systems have been found to possess random
262 errors of ± 0.14 m/s over a range of speeds from 5 to 9 m/s, with photocells positioned on
263 average 4.0 m apart [26]. However, it must be considered that photocell systems are limited
264 to providing average velocities over a set distance and the measurement error increases as
265 the distance between a pair of photocells decreases (e.g. to ± 0.36 m/s at an average of
266 2.0 m apart [26]). Photocells are thus limited in their use for obtaining a velocity profile,
267 particularly during acceleration. A radar system, based on the Doppler effect but used
268 similarly to the LDM device to obtain a continuous velocity-time profile, has been found to be
269 associated with random errors of ± 0.70 m/s at a range of distances from 10 to 45 m [12]
270 (criterion velocities from 7.23 to 10.09 m/s). More recently, a large-scale light-sensor network
271 system being developed for use in a sprint coaching context [9] was shown to currently
272 possess random measurement errors in velocity of ± 0.56 m/s.

273

274 Although the LDM device clearly compares well with other non-video-based measures, when
275 put in the context of typical within-subject performance variation (Table 2), LDM device
276 measurement error in estimates of velocity is relatively high. Velocity data obtained using an
277 LDM device during the first 5 m of a sprint possess an unacceptable level of error due to both
278 the over-estimation of velocity and considerable random error as sprinters become
279 increasingly upright during this early acceleration phase. However, the levels of
280 measurement error during the mid-acceleration and maximum velocity phases of a sprint (i.e.
281 10, 30 and 50 m) suggest that the LDM device can be used to obtain estimates of velocity
282 from these phases, provided only differences in excess of 0.22 to 0.30 m/s (i.e. twice the
283 random errors presented in Table 1) are regarded as genuine. Combining this with the typical
284 performance variation data presented in Table 2, the LDM may therefore be useful for
285 comparing between sprinters or across sessions as training progresses during a season,
286 particularly at further distances in a sprint. However, it appears to be of limited use for

287 determining within-sprinter variation in maximal effort sprint performance during a single
288 session.
289

290 *References*

291 ¹ *Altman DG, Bland JM.* Measurement in medicine: the analysis of method comparison
292 studies. *Stat* 1983; 32: 307-317

293

294 ² *Arsac LM, Locatelli E.* Modeling the energetics of 100-m running by using speed curves of
295 world champions. *J Appl Physiol* 2002; 92: 1781-1788

296

297 ³ *Atkinson G, Nevill AM.* Statistical methods for assessing measurement error (reliability) in
298 variables relevant to sports medicine. *Sports Med*; 26: 217-238

299

300 ⁴ *Berthoin S, Dupont G, Mary P, Gerbeaux M.* Predicting sprint kinematic parameters from
301 anaerobic field tests in physical education students. *J Strength Cond Res* 2001; 15: 75-80

302

303 ⁵ *Bezodis IN, Kerwin DG, Salo AIT.* Lower-limb mechanics during the support phase of
304 maximum-velocity sprint running. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2008; 40: 707-715

305

306 ⁶ *Bezodis NE, Salo AIT, Trewartha G.* Choice of sprint start measure affects the
307 performance-based ranking within a group of sprinters: which is the most appropriate
308 measure? *Sports Biomech* 2010; 9: 258-269

309

310 ⁷ *Bland JM, Altman DG.* Statistical methods for assessing agreement between two methods
311 of clinical measurement. *Lancet* 1986; 8: 307-310

312

313 ⁸ *Chelly SM, Denis C.* Leg power and hopping stiffness: relationship with sprint running
314 performance. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2001; 33: 326-333

315

316 ⁹ Cheng L, Tan H, Kuntze G, Bezodis IN, Hailes S, Kerwin DG, Wilson A. A low-cost
317 accurate speed-tracking system for supporting sprint coaching. Sports Eng Tech 2010; 224:
318 167-179
319

320 ¹⁰ de Leva P. Adjustments to Zatsiorsky-Seluyanov's segment inertia parameters. J Biomech
321 1996; 29: 1223-1230
322

323 ¹¹ Delecluse CH, van Coppenolle H, Willems E, Diels R, Goris M, van Leemputte M,
324 Vuytsteke M. Analysis of 100 meter sprint performance as a multi-dimensional skill. J Hum
325 Mov Stud 1995; 28: 87-101
326

327 ¹² Gander RE, McClements JD, Sanderson LK, Rostad BA, Josephson KE, Pratt AJ. Sprint
328 start instrumentation. IEEE Trans Instr Meas 1994; 43: 637-643
329

330 ¹³ Harrison AJ, Jensen RL, Donoghue O. (2005). A comparison of laser and video techniques
331 for determining displacement and velocity during running. Meas Phys Educ Exerc Sci 2005;
332 9: 219-231
333

334 ¹⁴ Harriss DJ, Atkinson G. Update - Ethical standards in sport and exercise research. Int J
335 Sports Med 2011; 32: 819-821
336

337 ¹⁵ Hunter JP, Marshall RN, McNair PJ. Segment-interaction analysis of the stance limb in
338 sprint running. J Biomech 2004; 37: 1439-1446
339

340 ¹⁶ Jacobs R, van Ingen Schenau GJ. Intermuscular coordination in a sprint push-off. J
341 Biomech 1992; 25: 953-965
342

343 ¹⁷ *Johnson MD, Buckley JG.* Muscle power patterns in the mid-acceleration phase of
344 sprinting. *J Sports Sci* 2001; 19: 263-272
345

346 ¹⁸ *Mero A, Komi PV.* Reaction-time and electromyographic activity during a sprint start. *Eur J*
347 *Appl Physiol Occup Physiol* 1990; 61: 73-80
348

349 ¹⁹ *Mero A, Luhtanen P, Komi PV.* A biomechanical study of the sprint start. *Scand J Sports*
350 *Sci* 1983; 5: 20-28
351

352 ²⁰ *Miller D, Nelson R.* Biomechanics of sport: a research approach. Philadelphia: Lea &
353 Febiger; 1973
354

355 ²¹ *Morin JB, Jeannin T, Chevallier B, Belli A.* Spring-mass model characteristics during sprint
356 running: correlation with performance and fatigue-induced changes. *Int J Sports Med* 2006;
357 27: 158-165
358

359 ²² *Sale DG.* Testing strength and power. In: MacDougall JD, Wenger HA, Green HJ (eds).
360 *Physiological testing of the high-performance athlete.* Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics, 1991:
361 21-106
362

363 ²³ *Salo A, Bezodis I.* Which starting style is faster in sprint running - standing or crouch start?
364 *Sports Biomech* 2004; 3: 43-54
365

366 ²⁴ *Slawinski J, Billat V, Koralsztejn JP, Tavernier M.* Use of lumbar point for the estimation of
367 potential and kinetic mechanical power in running. *J Appl Biomech* 2004; 20: 324-331
368

369 ²⁵ *Winter DA.* Biomechanics and motor control of human movement. New York: Wiley; 1990
370

371

372 ²⁶ *Yeadon MR, Kato T, Kerwin DG. Measuring running speed using photocells. J Sports Sci*

373 *1999; 17: 249-257*

374

375 Table 1. Bias and random error (quantified by 95% limits of agreement) in velocity values
 376 between the criterion video data and the LDM device data at each of the distances.

Distance (m)	Number of trials (and athletes)	Average velocity* (m/s)	Bias** (m/s)	Random error (m/s)
1	22 (3)	4.00 ± 0.15	+ 0.41	± 0.18
5	14 (7)	6.01 ± 0.23	+ 0.13	± 0.21
10	30 (7)	7.30 ± 0.29	+ 0.16	± 0.11
30	10 (5)	8.52 ± 0.62	+ 0.06	± 0.13
50	13 (3)	10.38 ± 0.31	+ 0.08	± 0.15

377 *Velocities presented are the criterion values (mean ± standard deviation) from the high-
 378 speed video data.

379 **Positive bias indicates that the LDM device data gave a higher estimate of velocity than the
 380 high speed video data.

381

382 Table 2. Ranges in criterion velocity data to illustrate the expected within-session and
 383 between-session genuine performance variation.

Distance (m)	Athlete	Number of trials	Mean velocity (range) (m/s)	Average within- session range (m/s)	Maximum between-session range (m/s)
1	A1	4	4.16 (4.07 – 4.20)	0.09	0.47
	A2	4	3.94 (3.90 – 3.98)		
	A3	3	3.94 (3.91 – 3.95)		
	A4	4	3.77 (3.73 – 3.85)		n/a
	B	4	4.16 (4.12 – 4.21)		
	C	3	4.02 (3.95 – 4.05)		
10	D	4	7.47 (7.44 – 7.51)	0.14	n/a
	E	5	6.90 (6.80 – 7.06)		
	F	4	7.91 (6.97 – 7.05)		
	G	5	7.45 (7.38 – 7.52)		
	H	3	7.03 (6.99 – 7.10)		
	I	5	7.58 (7.45 – 7.63)		
50	J	4	7.58 (7.51 – 7.64)	0.75	n/a
	A	3	10.49 (10.24 – 10.61)		
	B	5	10.40 (9.76 – 10.91)		
	C	5	10.29 (9.80 – 10.49)		

384

385

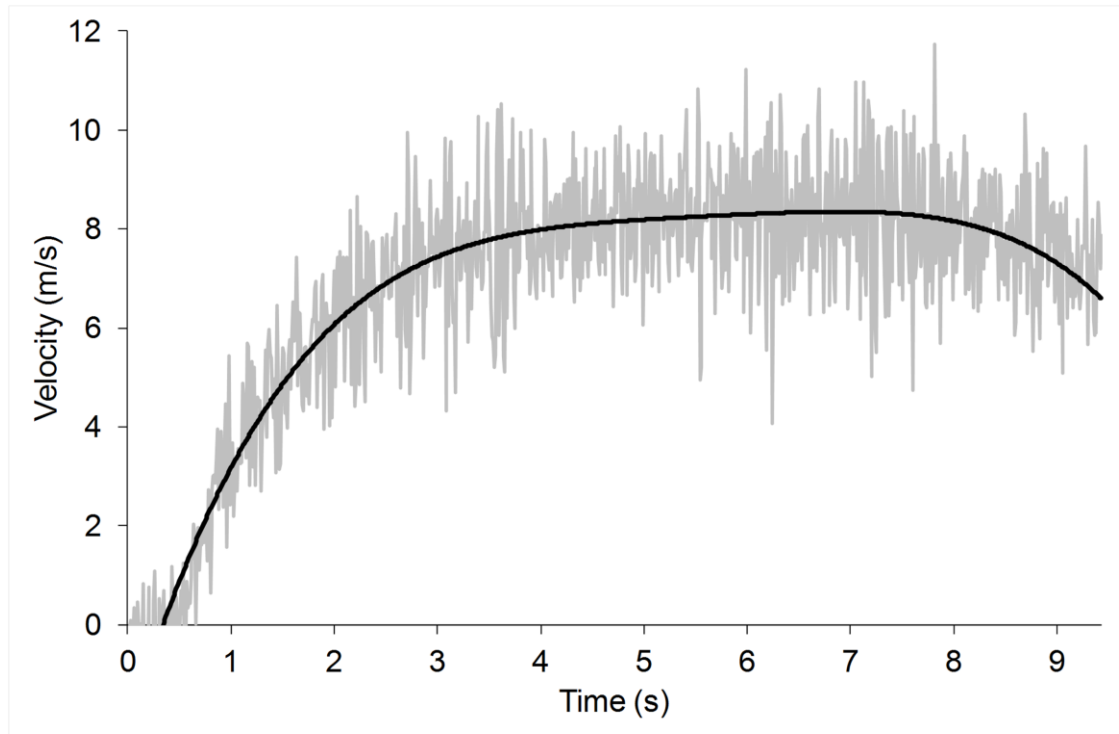


Figure 1. An example of the fourth-order velocity profile from one trial (obtained following a fifth-order polynomial fit to the raw displacement data), plotted above the velocity data obtained from differentiating the raw LDM displacement data. This trial was selected for illustrative purposes because the athlete clearly decelerated prior to 60 m, which confirmed that the chosen polynomial order was also able to appropriately reflect any deceleration.

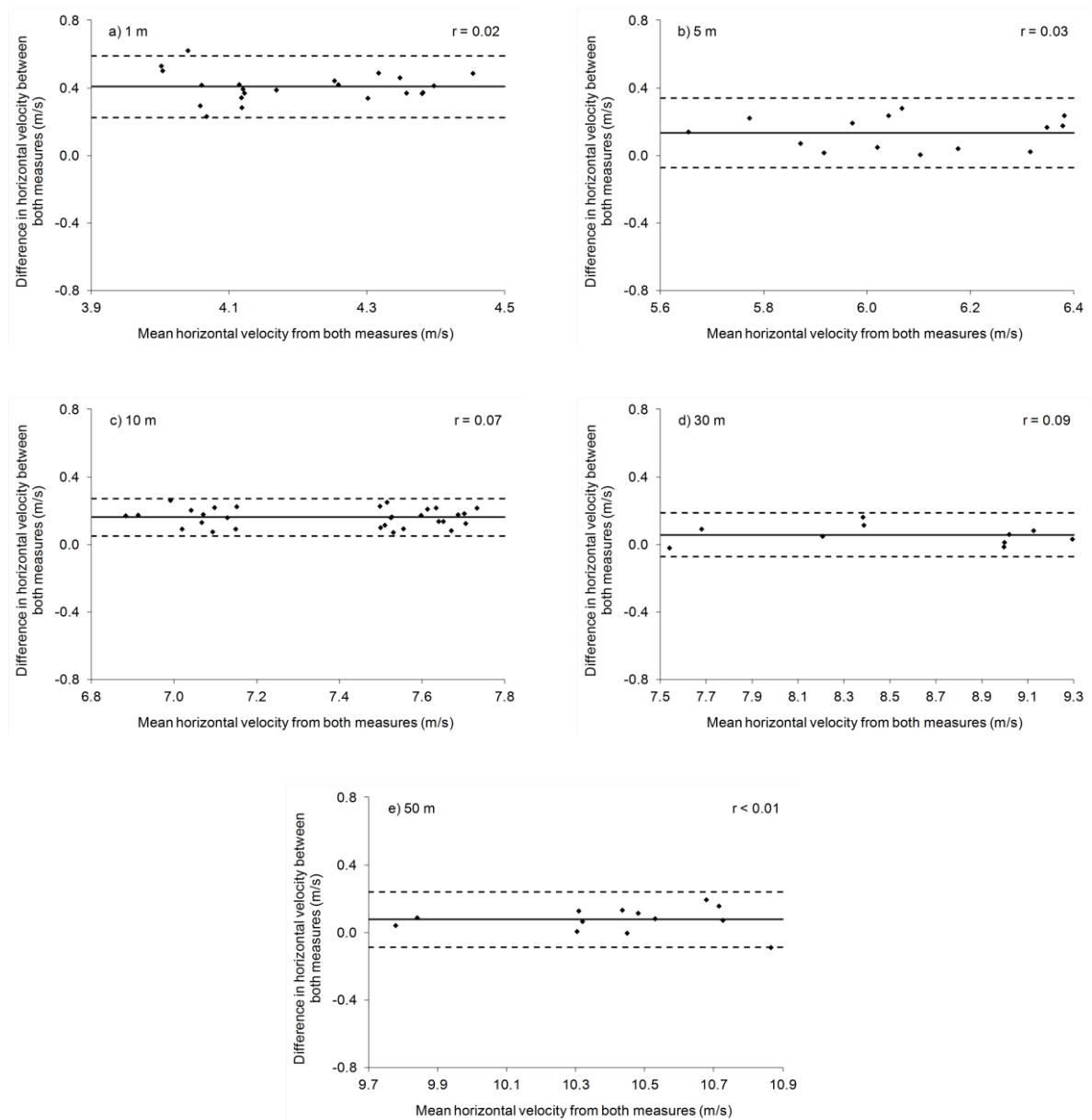


Figure 2 a-e. Bland-Altman plots to illustrate the bias and random error at each of the five distances.

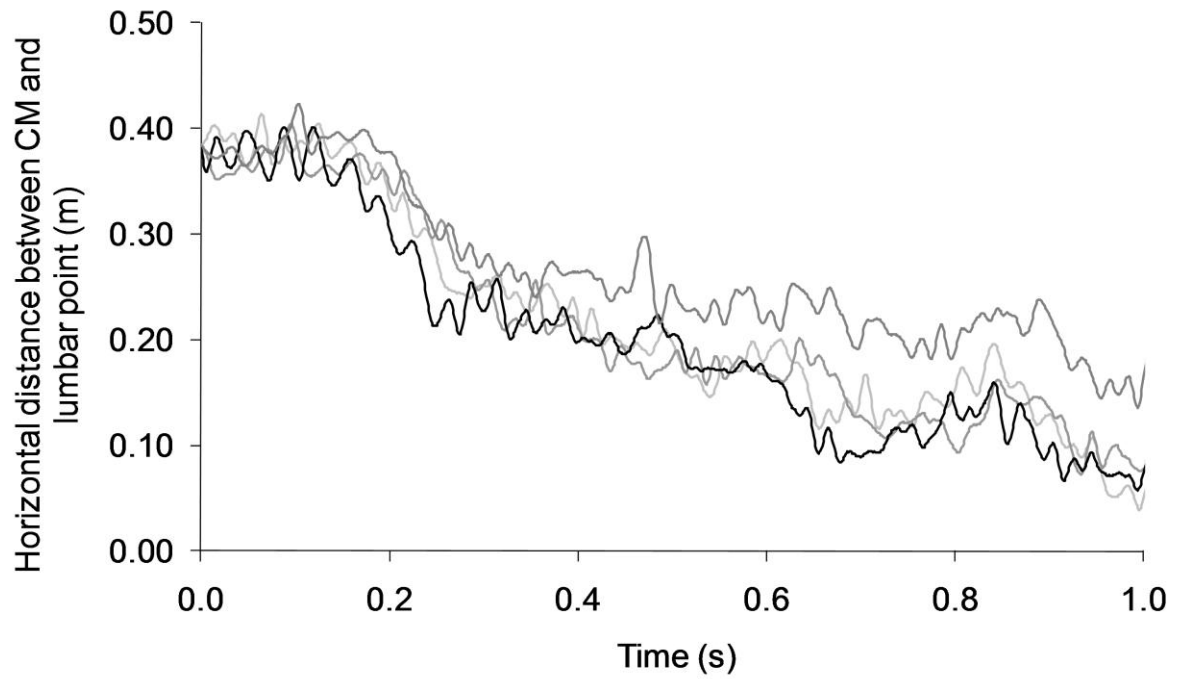


Figure 3. The horizontal distance between the lumbar point (at which the LDM was aimed) and the centre of mass during the first second of four trials from one sprinter.