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- 1 Upper body kinematic differences between maximum front crawl and
- 2 backstroke swimming [Original Article]
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# 21 Upper body kinematic differences between maximum front crawl and 22 backstroke swimming

23

24	Abstract: The purpose of this study was to investigate why front crawl is faster
25	than backstroke from a kinematic perspective. Three-dimensional kinematics
26	were obtained from one upper-limb cycle of ten male competitive swimmers
27	performing 50 m front crawl and backstroke trials at maximum speed. Swimmers
28	achieved faster centre of mass velocity in front crawl than backstroke ( $1.70\pm0.04$
29	vs 1.54 $\pm$ 0.06 m·s <sup>-1</sup> ; p<0.01) with no difference in stroke length (2.00 $\pm$ 0.25 vs
30	2.07 $\pm$ 0.17 m·cycle <sup>-1</sup> ), while stroke frequency in front crawl was higher than that
31	in backstroke (51.67±6.38 vs 44.81±4.68 cycles·min <sup>-1</sup> ; p<0.01). Maximum
32	shoulder roll angle in front crawl was larger than that in backstroke (52.88±4.89
33	vs 49.73 $\pm$ 5.73°; p<0.05), while swimmers had smaller maximum hip roll in front
34	crawl than backstroke (33.79±6.07 vs 39.83±7.25°; p<0.05). Absolute duration of
35	the release phase (from the last backward movement to the exit from the water of
36	the wrist) and relative duration of the recovery phase were shorter in front crawl
37	than backstroke (0.07±0.03 vs 0.26±0.08 s; p<0.01, and 28.69±2.50 vs
38	33.21±1.43%; p<0.01, respectively). In conclusion, front crawl is faster than
39	backstroke because of its higher stroke frequency due to the shorter absolute
40	release phase and relative recovery phase durations. (191 words)
41	Keywords: alternating strokes, performance, aquatic locomotion, stroke
42	frequency, stroke length, motion analysis

## 43 Introduction

44 Front crawl and backstroke have similar kinematic characteristics, such as

45 the alternating limb motions and the body roll around the longitudinal axis

46 (Psycharakis and Sanders, 2010; Seifert and Chollet, 2009). However,

47 swimmers usually achieve faster swimming speeds in front crawl than in

48 backstroke (Chollet et al., 2008, 2000; Craig et al., 1985). Swimming

49 performance is determined by stroke frequency (SF) and stroke length (SL)

50 (Pendergast et al., 1978). Therefore, the difference in the achievable

swimming speed between the two techniques is attributed to higher SF

52 and/or longer *SL* in front crawl than backstroke.

53 In races, swimmers have similar *SL* in front crawl and backstroke, but the

54 former has a higher *SF* than the latter technique (Hellard et al., 2008;

55 Kennedy et al., 1990), but the reason for this is still unclear. For example,

56 the similarities and differences could be either due to the factors in

57 swimming or indirect effects of distinct start and turn techniques.

58 Furthermore, as both SF and SL are affected by the anthropometry of

59 swimmers (Grimston and Hay, 1986), a within-participant comparison is

60 necessary to investigate mechanical dissimilarities between the alternating

61 techniques.

Since *SF* is the inverse of the upper-limb cycle time, the cycle duration should be investigated. The duration of the recovery phase in relation to one upper-limb cycle time at maximum speed is 26.3 and 29.3%, with *SF* being 51.8 and 44.3 cycles·min<sup>-1</sup> in front crawl and backstroke, respectively (Chollet et al., 2008, 2000), suggesting that the absolute recovery and underwater phase duration of the respective techniques being 0.30 and 0.40 s (recovery phase), and 0.85 and 0.95 s (underwater phase). However, it is unclear whether these differences between front crawl and backstroke were
due to differences in hand speed or the distance the hand travels (relative to
the body in both cases).

Swimmers should not be able to move their hands relative to the body faster in water than in the air due to the hydrodynamic drag, and also must maintain effective bilateral coordination in both techniques (Chollet et al., 2008, 2000). This means that the hand speed and/or the distance the hand travels above the water is probably restricted by the contralateral in-water hand speed. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that factors affecting *SF* are primarily underwater hand kinematics.

79 Bilateral coordination also affects SF in both front crawl and backstroke (Lerda and Cardelli, 2003; Potdevin et al., 2006), and the index of 80 81 coordination (IdC) has been used to describe it (Chollet et al., 2008; Seifert 82 and Chollet, 2008). *IdC* categorises the coordination into three patterns 83 (catch-up, opposition, and superposition) using the lag time between the left 84 and right upper-limb propulsive phases (Chollet et al., 2000). It has been 85 reported that SF and IdC are related, i.e., the smaller the lag time is, the higher SF presented (Lerda and Cardelli, 2003; Potdevin et al., 2006). 86 87 However, it is difficult to compare *IdC* between front crawl and backstroke 88 directly, since the definition of underwater phases differs among the 89 techniques (Chollet et al., 2008, 2000).

Given that *IdC* is a description of the timing between left and right upperlimb propulsive actions (Seifert and Chollet, 2008), rather than the duration

92	of propulsion being actually produced, the difference in the inter-limb
93	coordination between the techniques could be described differently.
94	Theoretically, if the recovery phase duration becomes short while
95	maintaining the underwater phase duration of the other upper-limb, that
96	would make the hand entry timing early in relation to the timeline of the
97	other upper-limb underwater phase and increase $SF$ (Figure 1). Therefore,
98	the ratio of the recovery and underwater phase duration and the timing of
99	the hand entry can be indicators of the bilateral coordination and its
100	influence on SF.

101

102	**Figure 1	around	here**
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103

104 Body roll is an angular motion of the body around the longitudinal axis, 105 comprising shoulder and hip roll (SR and HR) (Psycharakis and Sanders, 106 2010). Theoretically, swimmers should reduce the amplitude of body roll 107 and/or increase the body roll angular velocity to achieve high body roll frequency and, as a consequence, high SF. It has been reported that male 108 109 swimmers decrease their SR and HR amplitude when increasing SF in front 110 crawl (Yanai, 2003), while they do not change their SR and HR amplitude 111 depending on the speed in backstroke (Gonjo et al., 2016). Therefore, it is 112 possible that swimmers produce higher SF in front crawl by achieving 113 smaller body roll amplitude than in backstroke. However, there are no 114 studies in the extant literature in which SR and HR have been compared

115 between front crawl and backstroke.

It is probable that front crawl is faster than backstroke due to its higher SF. However, it is unclear which kinematic factors produce this SF advantage in front crawl. Discovering the technical advantages of front crawl compared to backstroke would be useful to gain insights into performance improvement in backstroke swimming. The purpose of the present study was to investigate the three-dimensional (3D) kinematics of front crawl and backstroke to assess why front crawl is faster than backstroke.

123

## 124 Methods

## 125 Participants

Ten male well-trained swimmers —front crawl (n = 4), backstroke (n = 3), and medley (n = 3) specialists participated in this study (Table 1). They were informed about testing procedure, benefits, and potential risks, which were approved by the ethics committees of the University of Edinburgh as well as the University of Porto, and written informed consent was obtained from each participant.

132

133 \*\*Table 1 around here\*\*

136 Before testing, participants were marked on 19 anatomical landmarks (the 137 vertex of the head, the right and left: tip of the distal phalanx of the middle 138 finger, wrist axis, elbow axis, shoulder axis, hip axis, knee axis, ankle axis, 139 fifth metatarsophalangeal joint, and the distal phalanx of the middle toe) 140 using black oil and wax-based cream (Grimas Créme Make-Up). To obtain 141 personalised body segment parameter data (*p-BSP*), swimmers stand in the 142 anatomical position in a calibrated space and were captured by two digital 143 cameras (Lumix DMC-FZ40, Panasonic, Osaka, Japan) from front and side views simultaneously. The images were manually digitised to apply the 144 145 elliptical zone method (Jensen, 1978), which is an approach to estimate p-146 BSP non-invasively by modelling each body segment as ellipses with known 147 depth and diameters. From the digitised data and segmental density data 148 reported in Dempster (1955), the mass, centre of mass (COM) location 149 relative to the endpoints, and moments of inertia of each segment were 150 obtained. The digitising and modelling process was conducted using the 'E-151 Zone' software (Deffeyes and Sanders, 2005; Sanders et al., 2015).

152 The testing was conducted in a centre lane of a 25 m indoor pool that was

153 calibrated using a calibration frame of 6 m length aligned with the

swimming direction (X), 2.5 m height (Y), and 2 m width (Z) (De Jesus et al.,

155 2015) with 32 underwater and 32 above water control points as input to a

156 3D direct linear transformation (DLT) reconstruction. The reconstruction

157 error was less than 0.1, 0.3, and 0.4% of the calibrated volume (30 m<sup>3</sup>) for

158 the X-, Y-, and Z-direction, respectively. Testing comprised two 50 m bouts at 159 maximum effort, one for front crawl and the other for backstroke. Each 160 testing session follows individual warm-ups on land and in water. The order 161 of the trials was randomised, and swimmers were instructed to avoid 162 underwater kicking after the push-off to prevent the technique affecting the 163 motion in mid-pool. Since some swimmers spent longer time underwater 164 after the first push-off than the second push-off, the latter half of 50 m was 165 selected for the analysis to minimise potential effects of the transition from 166 underwater to swimming phase.

#### 167 Data collection

168 The calibrated space was captured by four underwater and two above-water 169 cameras (HDR-CX160E, Sony, Tokyo, Japan) at a sampling frequency of 50 170 Hz. They were synchronised using a light-emitting diode system, which was 171 visible from all cameras. To maximise the accuracy of the *DLT* calculations, 172 all cameras were fixed at different heights and angles to the line of motion 173 of the swimmer to avoid their axes being in the same plane. Swimmers were 174 instructed to avoid breathing in the calibrated area in front crawl since it affects their upper-limb kinematics (McCabe et al., 2015). 175

## 176 Data processing and analysis

177 One upper-limb cycle (the duration between the left or right wrist entry to

178 the subsequent entry of the same wrist) in the calibrated space was chosen

179 for the analysis. Ariel Performance Analysis System software (Ariel

180 Dynamics, Inc, CA) was used for video digitising and 3D coordinates 181 reconstruction using 2D coordinates digitised from four (underwater) and 182 two (above-water) camera views. The digitising process was conducted 183 separately for underwater and above-water views. Both data were 184 synchronised and sharing the same global coordinates, therefore, the two 185 sets of data were merged based on the vertical coordinates of each 186 landmark. Since an appropriate sampling frequency in maximum effort swimming is between 22.0-27.5 Hz (Gonjo et al., 2018), every second video 187 field from each camera was digitised to yield a sampling frequency of 25 Hz. 188 189 To minimise errors at the end of the data sets associated with filtering and 190 derivation of velocity data, five extra frames before and after the upper-limb 191 cycle were digitised, with data being extrapolated by reflection to an 192 additional 20 points beyond the start and finish of the cycle (Sanders et al., 193 2016). Then, a 4th order Butterworth filter with a 4 Hz cut-off frequency 194 was applied.

195 Whole-body *COM* location was determined by summing the moments of the 196 segment COM mass about the X<sup>-</sup>, Y<sup>-</sup>, and Z<sup>-</sup>reference axes using *p*-BSP. The 197 velocity of  $COM(v_{com})$  was obtained by differentiating the X-displacement of 198 COM over the whole upper-limb cycle by the time taken for the cycle. SF 199 was obtained as the inverse of the analysed upper-limb cycle duration. SL 200 was obtained from the X-displacement of *COM* during the upper-limb cycle 201 (McCabe et al., 2011). The analysed cycle was divided into the entry, pull, 202 push, release, and recovery phases. As the phase definition in front crawl 203 and backstroke varies in the literature, the five phases were established by

mixing extant definitions (Chollet et al., 2000; Gourgoulis et al., 2006; Lerda
and Cardelli, 2003; McCabe et al., 2015) so that they could be compared
based on the same equivalent temporal events.

207 The entry phase commenced at the instant the wrist water entry and 208 concluded at the instant of its first backward movement relative to the 209 external reference frame. The pull phase was the interval between the end 210 of the entry phase and the instant that the X-coordinate of the wrist is 211 closest to that of the ipsilateral shoulder. The push phase was from the end 212 of the pull phase to the wrist having a positive velocity in X-direction 213 relative to the external reference frame. The release phase was defined as 214 the interval between the end of the push phase and the wrist exit.

215 The timing of the hand entry was obtained as an indicator of the bilateral 216 coordination of the upper-limbs, which was quantified as the time of the 217 hand entry in relation to the underwater phase percentile timeline of the 218 other hand (%). SR and HR angles were determined as the angles between 219 the unit vector of the line joining the shoulders and hips projected onto the YZ-plane and the Y-axis. The wrist joint was assumed to represent the hand 220 221 motion to avoid errors due to the difficulty of digitising the fingertip when 222 occluded by turbulence. Relative wrist speed  $(RS_{wrist})$  was defined as the 223 mean of the instantaneous 3D wrist speeds relative to the shoulder. The distance the wrist moved  $(MD_{wrist})$  in each phase was quantified by 224 225 multiplying RS<sub>wrist</sub> and the phase duration. The velocity of the wrist in Xdirection  $(v_{x-wrist})$  and YZ-direction  $(v_{yz-wrist})$  was calculated by dividing the 226

221	displacement change in the respective direction (X) and the plane (Y-Z) by
228	the time. Since the displacement and velocity of the wrist are affected by the
229	elbow joint kinematics, the elbow joint angles were quantified as the arc-
230	cosine of the dot product of the upper and lower arm unit vectors (Figure 2),
231	and the mean angle ( $ heta_{M}$ ) and the difference between the maximum and
232	minimum angles (the range of elbow joint angle: $ heta_{ROA}$ ) were calculated for
233	each phase. All variables related to left and right upper limbs were assessed
234	for both sides, and the mean values were assumed to represent the variable
235	of each phase.
236	
237	**Figure 2 around here**

(37)

 $(x_7, r_7)$ 

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238

007

## 239 Statistical analysis

240 To assess the differences in kinematic variables between the swimming 241 techniques, a paired t-test was used with a statistical significance level of p 242 < 0.05. Cohen's d was calculated to estimate the effect size with d = 0.20, 243 0.50, and 0.80 being deemed to represent small, medium, and large effects (Cohen, 1988). Before the t-test, the normality of all data in front crawl and 244 245 backstroke was checked and confirmed using the Shapiro-Wilk test. The tests were conducted using IBM SPSS Statistics 19 (IBM Corporation, 246 Somers, NY, USA). 247

#### 249 Results

250 Table 2 displays the analysed kinematic variables. There was no difference 251 in SL between front crawl and backstroke, while swimmers had around 10% 252 faster  $v_{com}$  and 13% higher SF in front crawl than in backstroke. The 253 recovery phase relative duration in front crawl was about 16% shorter than 254 backstroke, and the timing of entry relative to the other hand's underwater 255 phase timeline was 7% earlier in front crawl than backstroke. Maximum SR256 amplitude in front crawl was larger by 6% than backstroke, whereas 257 maximum *HR* amplitude was smaller by 18% in front crawl than in 258 backstroke. Swimmers had larger maximum SR and HR angular velocity in front crawl than backstroke (about 46 and 26% differences, respectively). 259

260

261 \*\*Table 2 around here\*\*

262

263 The differences in pull and push phase absolute duration between the two 264 techniques were not significant, while swimmers had 59% longer entry 265 phase and almost four times shorter release phase duration in front crawl 266 than backstroke (Table 3). Swimmers also had a larger *MD<sub>wrist</sub>* during the 267 entry and push phases in front crawl than backstroke (about 29 and 13% 268 difference, respectively). *MD<sub>wrist</sub>* during the pull and release phases were smaller in front crawl than backstroke (8 and 149% difference, respectively). 269 There were no differences in  $RS_{wrist}$  in both recovery and whole underwater 270

271 phases, even though front crawl had faster  $RS_{wrist}$  in the push and release 272 phases and slower  $RS_{wrist}$  in the entry and pull phases than backstroke.  $\theta_M$ 273 was larger in backstroke than front crawl in both whole underwater and 274 recovery phases (3 and 23% differences, respectively). Among the 275 underwater phases, the difference in the release phase was especially 276 notable (about 19% larger in backstroke than in front crawl).  $\theta_{ROA}$  was three 277 times higher in front crawl than backstroke in the recovery phase. Even 278 though there was no difference in the whole underwater  $\theta_{ROA}$ , it was more 279 than two times larger in backstroke than in front crawl in the release phase. 280 During the whole underwater phase, *vx*-wrist in front crawl was three times 281 larger than in backstroke, whereas vyz-wrist during the whole underwater 282 phase was not different between the techniques. Among the underwater 283 phases, swimmers showed larger *vx*-wrist at every phase in front crawl than 284 in backstroke except the pull phase where no difference was observed 285 between the techniques. vyz-wrist was larger in backstroke than in front 286 crawl in the entry and pull phases whereas that in push and release phases 287 was smaller in backstroke than in front crawl. An example of the wrist 288 displacement in X-, Y-, and Z-direction of the best participant is also 289 provided in Appendix 1.

290

291 \*\*Table 3 around here\*\*

294 Swimmers had faster *v<sub>com</sub>* with higher *SF* in front crawl than backstroke, 295 while SL was similar, indicating that front crawl is faster than backstroke 296 because of its higher SF. However, there was no difference in  $RS_{wrist}$  in both 297 whole underwater and recovery phases, demonstrating that the difference in 298 SF was due to the smaller MD<sub>wrist</sub> in front crawl than backstroke. Given 299 that backstroke had a longer duration and larger *MD*<sub>wrist</sub> than front crawl in the release phase, the difference in SF was primarily attributed to this 300 301 phase. Even though differences in *MD<sub>wrist</sub>* during the other phases were 302 observed, the largest effect size (3.60) in  $MD_{wrist}$  during the release phase 303 among all phases indicated that the primary source of the difference in SF304 was the release phase. Similarly, the differences in  $\theta_M$  and  $\theta_{ROA}$  (larger in 305 backstroke than front crawl) during the release phase implied that the 306 difference in *MD<sub>wrist</sub>* was attributed to the elbow angle differences between 307 the techniques.

308 In backstroke, the timing of the events defining the release phase varied 309 among swimmers (Figure 3). However, all swimmers tended to conduct the 310 entire last wrist underwater upward motion (clearing motion) in this phase, 311 meaning that the clearing motion is a primary motion during the phase 312 (Figure 3). Chollet et al. (2008) and Lerda and Cardelli (2003) emphasised 313 the importance of minimising the time spent on this motion to keep 314 continuous propulsion. Our results supported this suggestion, since minimising the clearing motion would reduce the release phase duration, 315

316 which would lead swimmers to achieve high *SF*.

317

318 \*\*Figure 3 around here\*\*

319

320 To reduce the clearing motion duration, it would be essential to minimise 321 the second down-sweep motion. However, swimmers probably should not 322 sacrifice the force produced during this motion. Figure 4 displays examples of SR angular velocity and vertical wrist displacement in front crawl and 323 324 backstroke of a participant who had the fastest best records in both 325 techniques. In front crawl, this swimmer achieved the maximum angular velocity at the end of the push phase, while it occurred when the swimmer 326 327 completed his second down-sweep in backstroke. This difference possibly 328 indicates the role of *SR* differing between the techniques. For example, 329 swimmers roll their shoulder to assist their up-sweep motion in front crawl, 330 while the second down-sweep motion assists the shoulder to roll in 331 backstroke. In other words, it is probably necessary for swimmers to 332 produce a certain amount of downward force during the second down-sweep 333 in backstroke to facilitate SR, which might contribute to an inline entry of 334 the contralateral hand and placing it in a deep position to make a strong catch (Alves et al., 2004). 335

336

337 \*\*Figure 4 around here\*\*

339	As suggested in the introduction, an early wrist entry timing in relation to
340	the timeline of the whole underwater phase of the other upper limb would
341	theoretically contribute to high SF. In the current study, swimmers achieved
342	a shorter relative recovery phase duration by entering the hand earlier in
343	relation to the underwater phase timeline of the other hand in front crawl
344	than backstroke. In other words, the swimmers had a more effective
345	coordinative pattern in front crawl than backstroke, from the perspective of
346	achieving high <i>SF</i> .

347 There was no difference in  $RS_{wrist}$  during the recovery phase while  $MD_{wrist}$ 348 was longer in backstroke than in front crawl. These results suggest that the 349 difference in the recovery phase duration (and consequently, the entry 350 timing) was due to the difference in  $MD_{wrist}$  between the techniques. The 351 longer *MD<sub>wrist</sub>* in backstroke than front crawl was probably linked to the larger  $\theta_M$  and smaller  $\theta_{ROA}$  in backstroke than in front crawl (i.e. bended-352 353 elbow and straight-arm recovery). The cause-effect relationship between  $MD_{wrist}$  and the elbow kinematics is difficult to establish. However, if SR is 354 355 strongly linked to the second down-sweep in backstroke as suggested above, 356 the swimmers probably had the larger  $\theta_M$  and smaller  $\theta_{ROA}$  in backstroke than in front crawl because they had to achieve longer MD<sub>wrist</sub> to maintain 357 358 certain bilateral coordination (i.e., coincide the second down-sweep with the 359 entry and first down-sweep of the other upper-limb).

360 In the introduction, differences in *SR* and *HR* between front crawl and

361 backstroke were identified as possible factors contributing to the difference 362 in *SF* between the techniques. However, contrary to the expectation, swimmers had approximately 6% larger maximum SR amplitude in front 363 364 crawl than in backstroke. On the other hand, maximum HR angle in front crawl was 18% smaller than in backstroke. The differences in maximum SR365 366 and *HR* angular velocities were more obvious than the roll amplitudes with 367 the differences of 46 and 26% (larger in front crawl than in backstroke) in 368 the maximum *SR* and *HR* angular velocity, respectively. It is unclear 369 whether the large roll angular velocity increased SF, or conversely, SF 370 affected the roll angular velocity. Nevertheless, the roll angular velocity 371 remains as a potential explanation of the *SF* difference between the 372 techniques.

373 There was no difference in the underwater  $RS_{wrist}$  between the two 374 techniques, despite the difference in SF. On the contrary, swimmers had 375 smaller  $v_{x-wrist}$  in backstroke than in front crawl during the whole 376 underwater phase due to the smaller  $v_{x-wrist}$  during the entry, push, and 377 release phases, while there was no difference in  $v_{yz-wrist}$  during the whole 378 underwater phase. The difference in  $v_{x-wrist}$  was due to the different  $v_{com}$ 379 between the techniques. Even though swimmers moved their wrist with an 380 identical speed relative to the body in both techniques, the wrist moved 381 backwards faster relative to the water in backstroke than in front crawl due 382 to the slower forward swimming speed.

383 Given that the forces in water are related to the hand speed (Kudo et al.,

384 2012), the similar underwater  $v_{yz-wrist}$  between the techniques might suggest 385 that swimmers produced an equivalent amount of lift force by the hands in 386 both techniques. On the other hand, the result of  $v_{x-wrist}$  during the push 387 phase implied a possibility that swimmers might have applied smaller 388 propulsive drag force by the hands in front crawl than in backstroke because 389 a negative  $v_{x-wrist}$  indicates the wrist moving backwards relative to the 390 swimming direction. If this is the case, it implies that either backstroke had 391 a larger active drag than front crawl or the contribution of the other body parts (such as lower limbs, upper arm, and forearm) to the propulsion is 392 393 much larger in front crawl than backstroke. Nevertheless, a limitation of 394 the present study is the lack of kinetic factors such as propulsive and 395 resistive forces as well as the hand orientation data, which should be 396 further investigated using kinetic analysis such as pressure distribution 397 analysis combined with a detailed 3D motion analysis (Kudo et al., 2017; 398 Tsunokawa et al., 2017).

In conclusion, front crawl is faster than backstroke because of its higher SF, which was due to the shorter absolute release phase and relative recovery phase durations. Since the information in the present study is limited to kinematics, kinetic differences between the techniques should be examined in the future.

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409

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				100 m best record		100 m FINA point	
	Age (years)	Height (cm)	Weight (kg)	Front crawl [s (%WR)]	Backstroke [s (%WR)]	Front crawl	Backstroke
Mean	17.47	179.14	69.94	54.50 (82.49)	60.56 (80.85)	562.07	529.16
SD	1.00	5.43	6.54	1.23 (1.91)	1.29 (1.72)	40.08	33.85

500 Table 1. Age, height, weight, and 100 m performance information of the participants.

501

502 Table 2. Centre of mass velocity, stroke frequency and length, the timing of entry,

503 maximum shoulder and hip roll amplitude, and maximum shoulder and hip roll angular

504 velocity in front crawl and backstroke.

	Front crawl	Backstroke	% difference	P-value	Cohen's d
Centre of mass velocity (m·s <sup>-1</sup> )	$1.70 \pm 0.04$	$1.54 \pm 0.06$	9.52	<0.01	3.14
Stroke frequency (cycles·min <sup>-1</sup> )	51.67 ± 6.38	44.81 ± 4.68	13.28	<0.01	1.23
Stroke length (m·cycle <sup>-1</sup> )	$2.00\pm0.25$	$2.07\pm0.17$	3.77	0.16	0.33
Relative recovery phase duration (% stroke cycle)	28.69 ± 2.50	33.21 ± 1.43	15.74	<0.01	2.22
Entry timing (% underwater phase)	69.90 ± 2.60	74.75 ± 1.76	6.94	< 0.01	2.18
Max shoulder roll amplitude (°)	$52.88 \pm 4.89$	49.73 ± 5.73	5.95	< 0.05	0.59
Max hip roll amplitude (°)	$33.79\pm 6.07$	39.83 ± 7.25	17.90	< 0.05	0.90
Max shoulder roll angular velocity $(^{\circ} \cdot s^{-1})$	$442.37 \pm 69.82$	$238.08\pm70.83$	46.18	< 0.01	2.90
Max hip roll angular velocity (°·s <sup>-1</sup> )	254.33 ± 32.97	187.90 ± 42.97	26.12	<0.01	1.73

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- 510 Table 3. Duration, the distance the wrist travelled, relative wrist speed, wrist velocity in
- 511 X- and YZ-direction, mean and the range of the elbow joint angle of the entry, pull,
- 512 push, release, recovery, and whole underwater phases in front crawl and backstroke. \*
- 513 and \*\* show significant differences from front crawl with p<0.05 and p<0.01,
- 514 respectively.

		Entry	Pull	Push	Release	Whole underwater	Recovery
	Front crawl	0.35±0.09	0.21±0.01	0.22±0.01	0.07±0.03	0.84±0.11	0.34±0.04
Duration (s)	Backstroke	0.22±0.08**	0.20±0.01	0.22±0.04	0.26±0.07**	0.90±0.08**	0.45±0.05**
	Cohen's d	1.56	0.25	0.01	3.79	0.62	2.60
	Front crawl	0.57±0.07	0.62±0.04	0.77±0.05	0.25±0.07	2.20±0.12	1.52±0.17
Distance the wrist moved (m)	Backstroke	0.40±0.09**	0.67±0.02*	0.67±0.08*	0.63±0.13**	2.37±0.12**	1.98±0.11**
	Cohen's d	2.03	1.49	1.58	3.60	1.42	3.22
	Front crawl	1.71±0.46	2.99±0.13	3.55±0.17	4.02±0.55	2.66±0.33	4.55±0.52
Relative wrist speed $(m s^{-1})$	Backstroke	1.95±0.40**	3.32±0.28*	3.22±0.42*	2.35±0.38**	2.64±0.18	4.45±0.44
	Cohen's d	0.57	1.46	1.03	3.53	0.09	0.21
	Front crawl	1.58±0.12	-0.79±0.10	-0.97±0.15	1.49±0.46	0.32±0.20	5.06±0.37
Wrist velocity in X-direction $(m \cdot s^{-1})$	Backstroke	1.30±0.26**	-0.83±0.46	-1.14±0.24*	0.91±0.37**	0.10±0.13**	4.33±0.37**
	Cohen's d	1.41	0.13	0.85	1.40	1.29	1.97
	Front crawl	1.52±0.39	1.19±0.11	1.88±0.19	3.08±0.48	1.64±0.23	2.29±0.40
Wrist velocity in YZ-direction (m·s <sup>-1</sup> )	Backstroke	1.71±0.31*	1.43±0.19**	1.21±0.18**	2.09±0.36**	1.60±0.13	2.76±0.25**
· · ·	Cohen's d	0.52	1.56	3.68	2.31	0.22	1.40
	Front crawl	169.84±2.21	136.74±7.29	117.55±3.79	140.49±10.07	145.34±2.24	136.54±19.41
Mean elbow joint angle (°)	Backstroke	166.74±3.01*	135.99±11.08	125.41±11.45	166.82±2.29**	150.52±5.41*	168.16±2.22**
	Cohen's d	1.17	0.08	0.92	3.60	1.25	2.29
	Front crawl	18.63±6.28	49.60±8.08	36.90±11.19	10.25±5.50	72.66±8.13	56.76±25.66
The range of elbow joint angle (°)	Backstroke	20.99±12.86	44.71±11.85	43.43±12.12	24.93±12.22**	68.34±10.86	18.87±3.21**
	Cohen's d	0.23	0.48	0.56	1.55	0.45	2.07

515



518 Figure 1. A model explaining the theoretical relationship between the recovery phase

519 duration, the timing of hand entry, and upper limb cycle time (i.e., stroke frequency).

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521



523 Figure 2. Elbow joint angle in front crawl and backstroke.



Figure 3. The mean Y-displacement (vertical direction) of the wrist among the ten
participants over the upper limb cycle with a range of the start and the end of the release
phase.



530 Figure 4. Examples of the Y-displacement (vertical direction) of the wrist and shoulder

angular velocity in front crawl and backstroke.

532



535 Appendix 1. An example of the wrist displacement in X-, Y-, and Z-direction of the best

536 participant.