A Simple Model for Predicting Sprint Race Times
Accounting for Energy Loss on the Curve

J. R. Mureika

Department of Computer Science
University of Southern California
Los Angeles, California 90089 USA

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Abstract
The mathematical model of J. Keller for predicting World Record race times, based on a simple differential equation of motion, predicted quite well the records of the day. One of its shortcomings is that it neglects to account for a sprinter’s energy loss around a curve, a most important consideration particularly in the 200m–400m. An extension to Keller’s work is considered, modeling the aforementioned energy loss as a simple function of the centrifugal force acting on the runner around the curve. Theoretical World Record performances for indoor and outdoor 200m are discussed, and the use of the model at 300m is investigated. Some predictions are made for possible 200m outdoor and indoor times as run by Canadian 100m WR holder Donovan Bailey, based on his 100m final performance at the 1996 Olympic Games in Atlanta.

1 Introduction

In 1973, mathematician J. Keller [1] proposed a model for predicting World Record (WR) race times based on a simple least–square fit of the records of the day. The fit was quite good, and provided a simple tool for gauging possible optimal performances in races, based on results from others. Keller’s model was limiting in the sense that it could only “in reality” predict possible records of linear races, with no consideration for those run on curves. For distance races (over 400m), this correction is negligible. When the race speeds are much higher, though, the curve contributions cannot be left out.

*newt@sumatra.usc.edu
Recent WR performances in athletics have prompted various new stud-
ies based on Keller’s work. The author of [2] introduces a more realistic
energy–loss model for sprinting, accounting for the sprinter’s actual veloc-
ity curve. Still, though, the curve is not considered; this is mentioned in
[2], but no solution is offered. The following work will formulate a simple
model to account for energy loss around the curve, and predict possible
WR performances accordingly, using data obtained from a least–square fit
of contemporary short sprint records. Both outdoor races, as well as indoor
competitions, are discussed. As a practical example, the 100m WR sprint
race of Donovan Bailey (Canada) is used as empirical data to further de-
termine the validity of the model for predicting 200m sprint times. A brief
discussion of indoor 300m records is offered. The possibility of using such a
model as a training tool for athletes and coaches in considered.

2 The Keller Model

Although mathematical models for running were first introduced by A. V.
Hill [3] in the mid–1920s, it was J. Keller who formulated a model to predict
possible WR performances [1], based on the notion that the speed and energy
loss of a human can be determined by certain key variables. In its simplest
form, the Keller (or Hill–Keller) model is a solution to the simple equation
of motion

$$\dot{v}(t) = f(t) - \tau^{-1}v(t) ,$$

(1)

Here, $f(t)$ is the force per unit mass exerted by the runner, and $\tau$ is a decay
constant which models internal (physiological) resistances felt by the runner.
The differential equation (1) is solved subject to the constraint $v(0) = 0,$
and also bearing in mind that $f(t) \leq f$ (i.e. the runner can only exert so
much force). The length of the race $d$ can be calculated as

$$d = \int_0^T dt \, v(t) ,$$

(2)

and the time $T$ to run the race can be obtained for a particular velocity
curve $v(t)$ over $d$. An additional constraint is that the power $f(t) \cdot v(t)$
must equal the rate of internal energy supply (cellular oxygen replacement,
aerobic reactions, etc...),

$$\frac{dE}{dt} = \sigma - f(t)v(t) ,$$

(3)
with $\sigma$ a physiological term representing the body’s energy balance. This is coupled with the initial condition $E(0) = E_0$, as well as the non-negativity of $E(t)$ ($E(t) \geq 0$) [1].

By variational methods, it was determined [1] that the optimal strategy for short sprints ($d < 291 m = d_{crit}$) is for the runner to go all-out for the duration of the race. That is, $f(t) = f$. Hence, $v(t)$ and $d$ can be calculated simply as

$$v(t) = f\tau (1 - e^{-t/\tau}) ,$$
$$d = f\tau^2 \left( \frac{T}{\tau} + e^{-T/\tau} - 1 \right).$$

(4)

For races of $d > d_{crit}$, the runner should choose a different optimization strategy. The parameters determined by Keller are [1]

$$\tau = 0.892 \, s$$
$$f = 12.2 \, m/s^2$$
$$\sigma = 9.83 \, cal/(kg \, s)$$
$$E_0 = 575 \, cal/kg$$

(5)

Keller [1] determined the optimal times (and hence WRs) for short sprints, and found: 50m - 5.48s, 60m - 6.40s, 100m - 10.07s, 200m - 19.25m, 400m - 43.27s. Although 400m is beyond the short sprint category, this time is cited because of its incredible approximation to the current record (43.29s, Harry “Butch” Reynolds, 1988). Andre Cason’s (USA) 6.41s 60m WR is also surprisingly close.

3 Tibshirani’s Extension

It is somewhat unrealistic to believe that a sprinter can actually apply a constant force for the duration of a race. This being said, it seems logical to assume the force $f(t)$ decreases with time. In the case of [2], a linear decrease was chosen, $f(t) = f - ct$, where $c > 0$. In this case, the equations of motion become

$$v(t) = k - ct\tau - ke^{-t/\tau} ,$$
$$D(t) = kt - \frac{1}{2}c\tau t^2 + \tau k(e^{-t/\tau} - 1) .$$

(6)

(7)
with \( k = f\tau + \tau^2c \).

More complex time dependences could equivalently be chosen (for example, it might be more appealing to chose a time dependence of the form \( f(t) = f \exp(-\beta t) \)), but for the purposes of this study, the linear one will suffice.

### 3.1 Accounting for reaction time

The values in (5) were calculated without consideration of reaction time on the part of the athlete. The IAAF sets the lowest possible reaction time by a human being to be \( t_{\text{react}} = 0.100\) s; any sprinter who reacts faster than this is charged with a false start. These times generally do not drop below \(+0.130\) s, and in general register around \(+0.150\) s (the average reaction time for the 100m and 200m finals at the 1996 Olympic Games was roughly \(+0.16\) s).

Granted, the ability to react quickly is an important strategy, and obviously one which cannot really be fit into a model. At the 1996 Olympic Games, American sprinter Jon Drummond registered a reaction time of \(+0.116\) s (100m, round 2, heat 2), and in the semi–final defending champion Linford Christie (GBR) reacted in \(+0.124\) s. Such quick reactions tend to be more a result of anticipating the starter’s gun, though, rather than purely electrophysiological manifestations.

### 4 Physical Meaning of the Parameters

Although mathematical in origin, it is reasonable to hypothesize what might be the physical interpretation of the parameters \((f, \tau, c)\). Clearly, \( f \) is a measure of the raw acceleration capability of the sprinter, while \( f\tau \), having units of \( ms^{-1} \), is a representation of velocity. In fact, this is the maximum velocity which the sprinter is capable of attaining (in the Keller model only; in the Tibshirani extension, the expression is slightly more complicated). The variable \( c \) must have units of \( f/t \), hence \( ms^{-3} \). Ideally, this is the time rate of change of the runner’s output, and can be thought of as a measure of muscular endurance. The full implications of \( \tau \) are unclear, but due to the nature of the equation of motion, and keeping in mind the initial conjecture of Keller that it be a function of internal resistances, one could hypothesize \( \tau \) to be some type of measure of such elements as flexibility, leg turnover rate, anaerobic responses, and so forth.

While not necessarily representative of any exact physics quantity, these parameters may have some physical analogue. The mechanics of sprint-
ing are far more complicated than the model suggests. However, the mere fact that these models can predict race times with surprising accuracy indicates that perhaps they can be of some use in training. One could imagine that a determination of the set \((f, \tau, c)\) for athletes can help to gear workouts toward specific development (power, endurance, and so forth). Further investigation of the consistency of the model for various athletes might considered.

5 200m races: Adjusting for the Curve

It is the opinion of this author that the way a sprinter handles the curve portion of a race, in particular a 200m, cannot be discounted. Exactly how this should be taken into consideration is unknown, as there are surely various factors (both physical and physiological) which must be addressed. The only physical difference between straight running and curve running is obviously the effects of centrifugal forces on the sprinter. One can assume that a sprinter’s racing spikes provide ample traction to stop outward translational motion, so this is not a concern. To compensate for the rotational effects (torques), the sprinter leans into the turn. This is not constant during the race; greater speeds require greater lean. However, the degree of lean is limited by the maximum outward angle of flexion of the ankle. Furthermore, one would think that maximum propulsive efficiency would not be generated at this extreme limit.

So, a curve model is not a trivial one to construct. However, based on the physical considerations alone, let us assume that the effect will manifest itself as a centrifugal term in the equation of motion. Since this is normal to the forward motion of the sprinter, we can rewrite (1) as

\[
f(t)^2 = \left(\dot{v}(t) + \tau^{-1}v(t)\right)^2 + \lambda^2 \frac{v(t)^4}{R^2},
\]

(8)

The term \(\lambda < 0\) has been added to account for the fact that a sprinter does not feel the full centrifugal force resulting from his angular velocity. This seems to be the simplest choice, at least for a first approximation to the correction. Clearly, the Hill–Keller model is regained in the limit \(R \to \infty\) (alternatively \(\lambda \to 0\)).

The radius of curvature \(R\) can have two distinct sets of values, depending on whether the competition is indoor or out.
Here, $p$ is the lane number, and the factors 1.25 (outdoor) and 1.00 (indoor) have been chosen as suitable representations of IAAF regulation lane widths, according to the following standards [4]:

- **Outdoor:** 400m in the inside lane, comprised of two 100m straights, and two 100m curves of fixed radius. Lane widths can range between 1.22 and 1.25 m, and are separated by lines of width 5 cm.

- **Indoor:** 200m in the inside lane (two 50m straights, and two 50m curves). The lanes (4 minimum, 6 maximum) should be between 0.90m to 1.10m in width, separated by a 5cm thick white line. The curve may be banked up to 18°, and should have a radius between 11m and 21m. The radius need not be constant.

Solving Equation (8) for $\dot{v}(t)$, with $f(t) = f$, one obtains

$$
\dot{v}(t) = -\frac{1}{\tau}v(t) + \sqrt{f^2 - \frac{\lambda^2 v(t)^4}{R^2}}.
$$

(10)

Equivalently, for Tibshirani’s more realistic model ($f(t) = f - ct$), Equation (10) becomes

$$
\dot{v}(t) = -\frac{1}{\tau}v(t) + \sqrt{(f - ct)^2 - \frac{\lambda^2 v(t)^4}{R^2}}.
$$

(11)

Because of a current lack of necessary empirical sprint data, the value of $\lambda$ can only be estimated.

Differential equations of the form (10), (11) are not trivial to solve, as they yield no explicit solutions for $v(t)$. However, such are easily solved by numerical methods. This was performed on the MAPLE V Release 4 mathematical utility package, which uses a fourth-fifth order Runge–Kutta method.

The race distance $d$ traversed around the curve in time $T$ can be calculated analogously to Equation (2),
\[ d = d_c + d_s \tag{12} \]

\[ = \int_0^{t_1} dt\, v_c(t) + \int_{t_1}^T dt\, v_s(t) , \]

with \( v_c(t) \) the solution to Equation (11), and \( v_s(t) \) the velocity as expressed in Equation (7), solved for the boundary condition \( v_c(t_1) = v_s(t_1) \). Here, \( t_1 \) is the time required to run the curved portion of the race (distance \( d_c \)), the integral form of which is evaluated numerically, based on the method of calculation stated for \( v_c(t) \).

By using Keller’s parameters (5), we can correct his original prediction of 19.25s to account for the curve. In fact, as an aside, it should be mentioned that the record of 19.5s as indicated in [1] is in fact the straight–track record of Tommie Smith, from 1966 [4]. With this in mind, we can apply the result of (10), coupled with (13), to obtain a curved–track WR estimate. For an assumed \( \lambda^2 = 0.60 \) (see section 9.1 for a discussion on choice of its value):

\[ v_{100} = 10.66 \, m/s , \]
\[ t_{100} = 10.24 \, s , \tag{13} \]
\[ t_{200} = 19.46 \, s . \]

The IAAF notes that times run on curves were estimated to be 0.3 to 0.4s slower than straight runs [4]. These results would tend to agree with this assertion.

6 New Model Parameters for Modern World Records

The parameters (5, 6, 7) are more than likely out of date, as they were calculated by fitting records almost 25 years old [4]. Also, these were fitted for a model which does not accurately model the velocity curves of sprinters. For example, a 100m runner’s velocity is not strictly increasing, but rather peaks between 40 and 60m. Table 1 lists the sprint WRs as of March 1997, from 50m to 400m [4, 5].

New parameters \( (f, \tau) \) and \( (f, \tau, c) \) have been obtained by a least–square fit to the four straight–track sprint WRs (50m, 55m, 60m, and 100m), and are listed in (15,16). These reproduce the short sprint times quite well (Table 2). Aside from the 100m WR (where the reaction time is known,
\[ t_{react} = +0.174s \] (8), a (perhaps liberal) reaction time of +0.16s has been assumed. By using the indoor races to calculate parameters, one is inherently removing the possibility of wind-assisted times. This has not been done in the case of the 100m WR (where the wind-reading was +0.7 m/s (8)), which may provide some source of error.

\[
\begin{align*}
    f &= 10.230 \text{ m/s}^2 \\
    \tau &= 1.147 \text{ s}
\end{align*}
\]

with (lower, upper) asymptotic 95% confidence levels of \( f = (10.060, 10.399) \), \( \tau = (1.124, 1.170) \), and

\[
\begin{align*}
    f &= 9.596 \text{ m/s}^2 \\
    \tau &= 1.274 \text{ s} \\
    c &= 0.058 \text{ m/s}^3
\end{align*}
\]

with (lower, upper) asymptotic 95% confidence levels of \( f = (8.290, 10.901) \), \( \tau = (0.981, 1.567) \), \( c = (-0.065, 0.180) \).

In light of the discussions of Tibshirani’s extension with relation to observed velocity curves, the parameters (15) are cited only for comparison with older values (although predictions using (15) are offered in Table 4, as a comparison to Keller’s results). Otherwise, this work will use only the parameters of (16).

7 Predicting the 200m World Record

By a straight application of the model as described above, it is possible to obtain predicted WR times for the 200m sprint. In addition, it seems logical to obtain predictions for indoor 200m races, as well, where the dynamics of curve sprinting should be more apparent. For outdoor performances, \( d_c = 100\text{m} \) in (13), and \( d_s = 100\text{m} \), and this is the same for all lane choices \( p = 1 – 8 \). Recall that \( d_c \) is not the curve-length for all lanes, only the distance run on the curve. For indoor races, the total distance is calculated by

\[1\]Pritchard [6] offers a simple method of accounting for wind assistance and drag. Making use of his work, one finds that in fact Donovan Bailey’s 9.84s WR corrects to a 9.88s still-wind reading. This is surpassed by Frank Fredricks 9.86s run with a wind reading of \(-0.4\text{m/s}\), which adjusts to roughly 9.84s [7]. So, if we account for wind contributions, a similar time is obtained anyway.
\[ d = d_{c1} + d_s + d_{c2} + d_s, \]  

(16)

where \( d_{c1,2} \) depend on the lane choice. Since standard indoor tracks are 200m in lane 1, it follows that \( d_{c1} = d_{c2} = d_s = 50 \text{m} \). The radius obviously increases for subsequent lanes, and using (16), one obtains \( d_{c1} = 40.58 \text{m} \) and \( d_{c2} = 59.42 \text{m} \). The latter value is the total length of the curved portion of lane 4, while the former is the distance run after the stagger.

For all tables, unless otherwise indicated the times listed will be raw \((i.e. \text{ minus reaction time})\). Only the final race times include reaction, as indicated in the column headings.

### 7.1 Outdoor 200m

Calculations using various values of increasing \( \lambda \) \((\lambda^2)\) are detailed in Table 5 and Table 6. For outdoor races (Table 5), a \( \lambda^2 \) range of 0.50-0.80 has been used. Before the 1996 Olympic Games, the estimated times given would have been considered almost unbelievable. However, in light of the current 200m WR (at the time of writing), the times are not so far fetched. The 19s–barrier is on the verge of being broken for \( \lambda^2 = 0.50 \), while for higher \( \lambda^2 \), the current WR is approached. It is interesting to note that, for \( \lambda^2 = 1.00 \), the model predicts a time of 19.30s, quite close to Michael Johnson’s 19.32s. These predictions are ideally for zero–wind readings, while the 19.32s was assisted with a wind of +0.4m/s. It is quite possible that Johnson will again lower his 200m WR mark this coming summer (1997), so we could very well see times in the range predicted in Table 5.

As a comparison to Keller’s prediction of 19.25s \([1]\), which can be considered a straight–track 200m \((\lambda^2 = 0)\), this model yields \( t_{200} = 18.54 \text{s} + 0.16 \text{s} = 18.70 \text{s} \), with a split of 9.67s (which is just the prediction for the 100m WR).

### 7.2 Indoor 200m

Indoor tracks have much shorter radii of curvature than do outdoor tracks. The centrifugal forces acting on a sprinter will be much higher for large \( v_c \), so it makes sense that the value of \( \lambda \) assigned to subsequent calculations should be lower than for outdoor ones. This is physically realized by banked turns on indoor tracks, which are generally 2–4 feet at maximum height. How much lower a value of \( \lambda \) one should choose probably depends on the height of the particular bank, so again no accurate estimate can be made. Due to
the $R^2$ force dependence, then a $\lambda (\lambda^2)$ ratio in the range of 2:1 (4:1) might be
expected for an outdoor:indoor ratio (under the assumption that the average
maximal velocity about the curve is the same). Accurate measurements
time and velocity measurements at the end of each race segment (curves
and straights) have been calculated, and accurate measurement of these
quantities can help determine validity of the model (see Table 1).

Frank Fredricks of Namibia broke the 20s barrier indoors in 1996 (see
Table 1), setting a new 200m indoor WR of 19.96s. This can be used to
estimate possible values of $\lambda$ that could be used. Clearly, any value under
$\lambda^2 = 0.60$ is quite reasonable, and in fact the 19.51s prediction for $\lambda^2 = 0.40$
is attractive, as it does not seem beyond the realm of possibility. This does
not follow the 4:1 ratio outlined above, however there is no real reason to
believe that is should. The only real stipulation is that outdoor values of $\lambda$
should be smaller than indoor ones.

### 7.3 Can the 19s barrier be broken?

Suppose that a value of $\lambda^2 = 0.60$ holds for outdoor performances (this
assumption is based on results of Section 9.1). The predicted 200m record
is 19.08s, assuming a reaction of +0.16s (Table 5). The minimum possible
time allowed without a false start being called would be 19.02s (this, of
course, assumes no wind speed, for which the predictions have been made;
if there is a sufficient legal tail–wind, the mark would certainly fall). How
should this athlete train in order to break the 19s barrier?

A 0.4% increase in the value of $f$ would give a raw time of 18.85s, with a
100m split of 9.94s ($v_{100} = 11.10$ m/s). Whereas, a larger decrease of 9% in
c (greater “endurance”) would yield a raw time of 18.83s, with a marginally
slower split of $t_{100} = 9.95s$, but a slightly faster $v_{100} = 11.11$ m/s. This is
an extreme case, but does show how the model parameters might be useful
to athletes and coaches as a training gauge.

Various articles [9, 10] have made attempts to predict the future trends
of WR performances, and the former states that a sub–19.0s 200m could be
realized by 2040 (although it also predicts a 100m time of 9.49s to match).
The authors of [11] are more optimistic, predicting a WR of 18.97s being
set as early as 2004. While their prediction of 19.52s for 1977 is off, it might
be retroactively made consistent by Michael Johnson’s 19.32s WR from the
1996 Olympic Games. If the predicted times of Table 5 are near accurate,
and considering the simple argument above, then the 2004 projection may
not be far off the mark.
8 Is the 300m Now a Short Sprint?

Keller determined that the maximum distance over which an athlete could run using the strategy \( f(t) = f \) was \( d_{\text{crit}} = 291\text{m} \) \(^1\). Likewise, physiologists have suggested that a human cannot run at full speed for longer that 30s (see \(^6\) and references therein). While the latter study is just over 10 years old, one wonders whether or not \( d_{\text{crit}} \) has dropped. Alternatively, if a sprinter can run a sub–30s 300m, would this entail that the different strategy used for races longer than 291m no longer applies?

As with the 200m, Table 7 outlines possible 300m record times, as run in lane 4 of a standard indoor track. Since the actual (if there is one) value of \( \lambda^2 \) is unknown, a range of 0.30–0.50 is chosen in light of the 200m results. In the case of lane 4, the race is made up of the segments

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathbf{d} &= \mathbf{d}_1 + \mathbf{d}_s + \mathbf{d}_2 + \mathbf{d}_s + \mathbf{d}_3 + \mathbf{d}_s \\
&= 31.16\text{m} + 50\text{m} + 59.42\text{m} + 50\text{m} + 59.42\text{m} + 50\text{m}.
\end{align*}
\]

(17)

The estimated time for the first two choices of \( \lambda^2 \) are under the 30s barrier by more than half a second, while \( \lambda^2 = 0.5 \) yields a value of 29.72s (with reaction). Comparison to the current WR of 32.19s (Table 1) give time differentials of approximately 2.49s–3.06s! The 300m times may be a product of a decaying fit to the data. However, the time differentials cited appear far too large to be manifestations of statistical error alone, which would suggest that there is an additional mechanism (perhaps physiological in origin) at work over this distance. This approach would suggest that the 300m is still not a sprint, by the definition of Keller \(^1\).

9 A Practical Application: Donovan Bailey

On Saturday, July 27th, 21:00 EST, Donovan Bailey (DB) of Canada crossed the 100m finish line in a new WR time of 9.84s (+0.7 m/s wind). Thanks to excellent documentation of data from this race, it is possible to find an “exact” solution\(^2\) to the equations \(^7\), and hence solve them for the parameters \((f, \tau, c)\). The relevant data for the race is \(^8\).

\(^2\)It is emphasized that, while it is possible to obtain an exact set of values for the parameters, these are not DB’s parameters, since the model does not account for wind assistance and drag.
\[ v_{\text{max}} = 12.1 \text{m/s} , \quad (18) \]
\[ d_{v_{\text{max}}} = 59.50 \text{m} , \quad (19) \]
\[ v_{100} = 11.5 \text{m/s} , \quad (20) \]

Since the system equations used are different than Keller’s, the maximum velocity will not be simply \( v_{\text{max}} = f \tau \). The maximum value of \( v(t) \) is found to be

\[ v_{\text{max}} = f \tau + c \tau^2 \ln \left( \frac{c}{f \tau + c} \right) . \quad (21) \]

With \( dv(t_{\text{max}})/dt = 0 \). The values \( (f, \tau, c) = (7.96, 1.72, 0.156) \) are thus obtained. These can be compared with those obtained in \( [4] \) by a least-square fit to the official splits listed in Table 8: \( (f, \tau, c) = (6.41, 2.39, 0.20) \). Note that the higher value of \( f \) and lower values of \( \tau, c \) are likely a manifestation of solution method and accounting for reaction time.

### 9.1 Predicting DB’s 200m times

Using the parameters obtained in Section 8 and the model framework established in Section 5, 200m times will be obtained for DB as run on both indoor and outdoor tracks. Resulting split times are “raw” (i.e. without reaction time), but the final time will be given both with and without reaction time (roughly 0.15s, which is faster than his 1996 Olympic 100m final reaction time of 0.174s).

Table 9 shows calculated times and velocities for DB running in lane 4 \( (p = 4) \) for varying values of \( \lambda^2 \). Since the actual value of this parameter is unknown, in order to determine its possible value predicted times will be matched with DB’s past 200m performances. While no conclusive value of \( \lambda^2 \) could be determined from Section 6, perhaps DB’s performances can help shed light. The IAAF lists [4] his best 200m clocking as 20.76s, with a 20.39s wind-assisted performance, in 1994. Assuming that his time will be lower in 1997 (but most likely not world-class, or sub-20s, due to his training as a 100m specialist), it will be assumed that DB is currently capable of running roughly 20.20–20.30s. This would tend to favor a value of \( \lambda^2 \) between 0.50 and 0.70. Predicted indoor performances are listed in Table 10.

For indoor 200m, Bailey’s performance seems to greatly suffer for large \( \lambda \), which further supports the claim of smaller values for indoor tracks. A
200m clocking above 21s is hardly expected by a world class sprinter! In fact, even the 21s times \( (\lambda^2 = 0.40, 0.50) \) seem somewhat slow for the 100m WR holder. These could suggest that the indoor \( \lambda \) be quite low \( (\lambda^2 < 0.4) \).

Analogous to Table [11], segment times and velocities for DB have been calculated, and are listed in Table [12].

10 Discussion and General Conclusions

This model is not intended to serve as gospel of how sprinters perform; surely, it is crude at best. However, it can be used as a simple tool to gauge what kind of records might be expected, based on present performances. Due to the “loose” statistical fit of the data from lack of points, the WRs of Section 7 may be somewhat overestimated. DB’s predicted performances of Section 9.1 are probably more representative of the possible range of \( \lambda^2 \) values that one might realistically expect, if such a model holds. That is, if he is capable of running the 200m in the range of 20.15–20.40s, then if \( \lambda^2 \) is the same for all runners, possible values lie between \( \lambda^2 = 0.40–0.60 \). A value of \( \lambda^2 = 1.00 \), while closely reproducing the current 200m WR, is definitely wrong from this observational point of view: it would greatly underestimate Bailey’s potential \( (t > 20.60s \) would hardly be expected by a WR holding sprinter, regardless of specialization).

The following points should be considered, though:

- \( \lambda^2 \) is not the same for indoor and outdoor races; indoor tracks would favor lower \( \lambda \), so long as they are banked
- \( \lambda^2 \) may not be the same for all athletes; 200m specialists handle turns with greater ease than 100m specialists. It may be an individual parameter, like \((f, \tau, c)\).
- due to physiological considerations (different posture assumed or muscles/joints used, etc…), it seems more likely that the values of \( \tau \) and/or \( c \) may change around the curve
- if the effect is purely physical, then the individual lane records should be strictly decreasing from lane 1 to lane 8. The recorded records (Table [3]) suggest that a minimal race time is achieved around lane 3 or 4, contributing to the physiological nature of curve running.
The results of this paper are limited by the availability of relevant data, unfortunately. It would perhaps be of future interest to investigate the physical nature of the parameters \((f, \tau, c, \lambda)\) through study of various athletes. By knowing the effects of their variability on predicted times, models such as these could perhaps be used as a new training tool to gauge and direct the training of World Class athletes.

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| Event | t(s)  | v_w (m/s) | Athlete               | Location          | Date       |
|-------|-------|-----------|-----------------------|-------------------|------------|
| 50m   | 5.56  | i         | Donovan Bailey (CAN)  | Reno, NV          | 9 Feb 1996 |
| 55m   | 5.99  | i, A      | Obadele Thompson (BAR)| Colorado Springs, CO | 22 Feb 1997|
| 60m   | 6.41  | i         | Andre Cason (USA)     | Madrid, ESP       | 14 Feb 1992|
| 100m  | 9.84  | +0.7      | Donovan Bailey (CAN)  | Atlanta, GA       | 27 Jul 1996|
| 200m  | 19.96 | i         | Frank Fredricks (NAM) | Liévin, FR        | 18 Feb 1996|
|       | 19.32 | +0.4      | Michael Johnson (USA) | Atlanta, GA       | 1 Aug 1996 |
| 300m  | 32.19 | i         | Robson daSilva (BRA)  | Karlsruhe         | 24 Feb 1989|
| 400m  | 44.63 | i         | Michael Johnson (USA) | Atlanta, GA       | 4 Mar 1995 |
|       | 43.29 |           | Harry Reynolds (USA)  | Zurich            | 17 Aug 1988|

Table 1: Men’s Sprint World Records as of March 1997. Wind speed of ‘i’ indicates indoor performance; ‘A’ indicates performance at altitude.

| Event | t_{race} | t_{raw} | t_{fit} (Keller) | t_{fit} (Tibs.–Keller) |
|-------|----------|---------|------------------|------------------------|
| 50m   | 5.56     | 5.40    | 5.40             | 5.40                   |
| 55m   | 5.99     | 5.83    | 5.83             | 5.83                   |
| 60m   | 6.41     | 6.25    | 6.26             | 6.25                   |
| 100m  | 9.84     | 9.67    | 9.67             | 9.67                   |

Table 2: Model predictions of Men’s Sprint WRs; t_{raw} = t_{race} − t_{reac}, where t_{reac} = 0.16s for all races except 100m (where it has a known value of 0.17s).
Lane Athlete           $t_{200}$ Location Date
1  John Carlos USA  20.12A Mexico City 16 Oct 68
    Daniel Effiong NIG  20.15 Zurich 04 Aug 93
2  Robson da Silva BRA  20.00 Barcelona 10 Sep 89
3  Michael Johnson USA  19.32 Atlanta 01 Aug 96
4  Pietro Mennea ITA  19.72A Mexico City 12 Sep 79
    Michael Johnson USA  19.79 Goteborg 11 Aug 95
5  Michael Johnson USA  19.66 Atlanta 23 Jun 96
6  Joe DeLoach USA  19.75 Seoul 28 Sep 88
7  Carl Lewis USA  19.80 Los Angeles 08 Aug 84
8  Michael Johnson USA  19.79 New Orleans 28 Jun 92

Table 3: World records by lane for 200m (from [11]).

| $\lambda^2$ | $v_{100}$ | $t_{100}$ | $t_{200}$ | $t_{200} + 0.16$ |
|------------|----------|--------|---------|----------------|
| 0.50       | 11.36    | 9.88   | 18.44   | 18.60          |
| 0.60       | 11.29    | 9.92   | 18.49   | 18.65          |
| 0.70       | 11.23    | 9.95   | 19.52   | 18.68          |
| 0.80       | 11.17    | 9.99   | 18.57   | 18.73          |

Table 4: Keller parameter ($f = 10.230, \tau = 1.147$) predicted outdoor 200m World Records for various values of $\lambda^2$, assuming race is run in lane 4. $v_{100}$ is the velocity for the given split.

| $\lambda^2$ | $v_{100}$ | $t_{100}$ | $t_{200}$ | $t_{200} + 0.16$ |
|------------|----------|--------|---------|----------------|
| 0.50       | 11.14    | 9.92   | 18.86   | 19.02          |
| 0.60       | 11.06    | 9.97   | 18.92   | 19.08          |
| 0.70       | 10.98    | 10.02  | 18.98   | 19.14          |
| 0.80       | 10.91    | 10.06  | 19.03   | 19.19          |

Table 5: TK parameter ($f = 9.596, \tau = 1.274, c = 0.058$) predicted outdoor 200m World Records for various values of $\lambda$, assuming race is run in lane 4. $v_{100}$ is the velocity for the given split.
Table 6: Predicted indoor 200m World Records for various values of $\lambda$, assuming race is run in lane 4.

| $\lambda^2$ | $t_{50}$ | $t_{100}$ | $t_{150}$ | $t_{200}$ | $t_{200} + 0.16$ |
|-------------|---------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------------|
| 0.20        | 5.50    | 9.82      | 14.40     | 18.98     | 19.14           |
| 0.30        | 5.55    | 9.88      | 14.56     | 19.17     | 19.33           |
| 0.40        | 5.60    | 9.95      | 14.72     | 19.35     | 19.51           |
| 0.50        | 5.64    | 10.01     | 14.86     | 19.52     | 19.68           |
| 0.60        | 5.69    | 10.08     | 15.00     | 19.68     | 19.84           |

Table 7: Predicted indoor 300m World Records, as run in lane 4.

| $\lambda^2$ | $t_{50}$ | $t_{100}$ | $t_{150}$ | $t_{200}$ | $t_{250}$ | $t_{300}$ | $t_{300} + 0.16$ |
|-------------|---------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------------|
| 0.30        | 5.52    | 9.87      | 14.55     | 19.13     | 24.08     | 28.99     | 29.15           |
| 0.40        | 5.55    | 9.93      | 14.69     | 19.29     | 24.33     | 29.27     | 29.43           |
| 0.50        | 5.59    | 10.00     | 14.85     | 19.47     | 24.59     | 29.56     | 29.72           |

Table 8: Predicted splits (s) and speed (m/s) compared with official for Bailey’s 100m final in Atlanta. Reaction time is rounded to +0.17s.

| Split | 10m | 20 | 30 | 40 | 50 | 60 | 70 | 80 | 90 | 100 |
|-------|-----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|-----|
| Speed | 9.32 | 10.95 | 11.67 | 11.99 | 12.10 | 12.10 | 11.99 | 11.85 | 11.67 | 11.47 |
| Raw   | 1.89 | 2.90 | 3.79 | 4.64 | 5.47 | 6.29 | 7.12 | 7.96 | 8.81 | 9.67 |
| +reaction | 2.06 | 3.07 | 3.96 | 4.81 | 5.64 | 6.46 | 7.29 | 8.13 | 8.98 | 9.84 |
| Official | 1.9 | 3.1 | 4.1 | 4.9 | 5.6 | 6.5 | 7.2 | 8.1 | 9.0 | 9.84 |
| $\lambda^2$ | $t_{50}$ | $v_{50}$ | $t_{100}$ | $v_{100}$ | $t_{150}$ | $t_{200}$ | $t_{200} + 0.16$ |
|----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------------|
| 0.25     | 5.53      | 11.74     | 9.89      | 11.03     | 14.56     | 19.81     | 19.97         |
| 0.36     | 5.55      | 11.60     | 9.98      | 10.85     | 14.69     | 19.96     | 20.12         |
| 0.50     | 5.59      | 11.43     | 10.09     | 10.65     | 14.84     | 20.13     | 20.29         |
| 0.60     | 5.61      | 11.31     | 10.16     | 10.51     | 14.93     | 20.24     | 20.40         |
| 0.70     | 5.63      | 11.20     | 10.24     | 10.39     | 15.09     | 20.43     | 20.59         |

Table 9: Bailey’s predicted outdoor 200m times, as run in lane 4.

| $\lambda^2$ | $t_{50}$ | $t_{100}$ | $t_{150}$ | $t_{200}$ | $t_{200} + 0.16$ |
|----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------------|
| 0.20     | 5.62      | 9.91      | 14.88     | 20.32     | 20.48         |
| 0.30     | 5.68      | 10.01     | 15.17     | 20.71     | 20.87         |
| 0.40     | 5.75      | 10.13     | 15.43     | 21.05     | 21.21         |
| 0.50     | 5.81      | 10.22     | 15.67     | 21.37     | 21.53         |
| 0.60     | 5.88      | 10.32     | 15.91     | 21.68     | 21.84         |
| 0.70     | 5.94      | 10.42     | 16.13     | 21.97     | 22.13         |
| 0.80     | 5.99      | 10.50     | 16.33     | 22.23     | 22.39         |

Table 10: Bailey’s predicted indoor 200m times, as run in lane 4.

| $\lambda^2$ | $t_{c1}$ | $v$       | $t_{s1}$ | $v$       | $t_{c2}$ | $v$       |
|----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| 0.20     | 4.67      | 11.16     | 8.99      | 11.63     | 14.40     | 10.70     |
| 0.30     | 4.71      | 10.95     | 9.05      | 11.62     | 14.56     | 10.47     |
| 0.40     | 4.75      | 10.76     | 9.11      | 11.61     | 14.72     | 10.27     |
| 0.50     | 4.78      | 10.59     | 9.16      | 11.60     | 14.86     | 10.09     |
| 0.60     | 4.82      | 10.43     | 9.22      | 11.59     | 15.00     | 9.92      |

Table 11: TK parameter times and velocities for curve ($c1 = 40.58$m, $c2 = 59.42$m), and straight ($s1 = 50$m) race segments for indoor 200m.
Table 12: Bailey parameter times and velocities for curve \((c_1 = 40.58\text{m}, c_2 = 59.42\text{m})\), and straight \((s_1 = 50\text{m})\) race segments for indoor 200m.

| \(\lambda^2\) | \(t_{c1}\) | \(v\) | \(t_{s1}\) | \(v\) | \(t_{c2}\) | \(v\) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0.20 | 4.79 | 11.20 | 9.07 | 11.58 | 14.88 | 9.40 |
| 0.30 | 4.84 | 10.90 | 9.17 | 11.53 | 15.17 | 9.06 |
| 0.40 | 4.89 | 10.62 | 9.26 | 11.49 | 15.43 | 8.80 |
| 0.50 | 4.94 | 10.38 | 9.34 | 11.46 | 15.67 | 8.56 |
| 0.60 | 4.99 | 10.15 | 9.43 | 11.42 | 15.91 | 8.35 |