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Additional Information

1 **ABSTRACT**

2

3 This cross-sectional study analyzed the influence of chronic shoulder pain (CSP) on
4 movement variability/kinematics during humeral elevation, with the trunk and elbow
5 motions constrained to avoid compensatory strategies.

6 For this purpose, 37 volunteers with CSP as the injured group (IG) and 58 participants
7 with asymptomatic shoulders as the control group (CG) participated in the study.

8 Maximum humeral elevation (E_{max}), maximum angular velocity (V_{max}), variability
9 of the maximum angle (CV_{E_{max}}), functional variability (Func_{var}) and approximate
10 entropy (ApEn) were calculated from the kinematic data. Patients' pain was measured
11 on the visual analogue scale (VAS). Compared with the CG, the IG presented lower
12 E_{max} and V_{max} and higher variability (i.e. CV_{E_{max}}, Func_{var} and ApEn). Moderate
13 correlations were achieved for the VAS score and the kinematic variables E_{max},
14 V_{max} and variability of curve analysis, Func_{var} and ApEn. No significant
15 correlation was found for CV_{E_{max}}. In conclusion, CSP results in a decrease of angle
16 and velocity and an increased shoulder movement variability when the neuromuscular
17 system cannot use compensatory strategies to avoid painful positions.

18

19 **Key terms:** Shoulder pain, variability, humeral elevation, neuromuscular control
20 system.

21

22 1. INTRODUCTION

23

24 Human movement is variable in nature, meaning that the same gesture repeated by the
25 same person does not always perform in the same way (Schwartz, Trost, & Wervey,
26 2004). This variability has been associated with the stability of the neuromuscular
27 system (Clark & Phillips, 1993) and its magnitude may be different in people with
28 injury or pain (Bergin, Tucker, Vicenzino, Van Den Hoorn, & Hodges, 2014).

29 The analysis of movement variability in upper limb motion shows seemingly
30 contradictory results. While some authors have reported an increased variability in
31 kinematics in people with shoulder pain (Jayaraman et al., 2014; Lomond & Côté,
32 2010), others have reached the opposite conclusion (Bergin et al., 2014; Moon et al.,
33 2013; Rice, Jayaraman, Hsiao-Wecksler, & Sosnoff, 2014). These conflicting results are
34 a restriction for the use of movement variability as a clinical measure in the assessment
35 and treatment of patients with chronic shoulder pain (CSP).

36 Two main issues should be considered when analyzing the results of the
37 aforementioned studies: (i) movement variability is directly associated with the task
38 under investigation (Bates, James, & Dufek, 2004) and (ii) the result of movement
39 variability may depend on the metrics used to measure it (Srinivasan & Mathiassen,
40 2012).

41 With respect to the task under investigation, with upper limb motion it is often possible
42 to achieve the same goal through several anatomical configurations. According to the
43 uncontrolled manifold hypothesis (Scholz & Schöner, 1999), the nervous system allows
44 variations in task performance in order to relieve the dysfunction of the injured
45 structure, increasing the mobility of the adjacent joints (i.e. the trunk, elbow and wrist)

46 and decreasing the shoulder motion and movement variability without compromising
47 the success of the task (Jayaraman et al., 2014; Lomond & Côté, 2010; Madeleine &
48 Madsen, 2009). Therefore, decreased variability of movement in injured people would
49 be more closely related to these compensation strategies involving the neighboring
50 joints, which may help to successfully accomplish the task, than to the effect of the
51 injury itself. Consequently, an appropriate analysis of the effect of CSP on movement
52 variability would require the restriction of compensatory strategies involving other
53 joints with the aim of focusing only on the shoulder joint motion. This would reduce the
54 nervous system's options for managing pain, hypothetically resulting in an increased
55 variability of shoulder movement, as no other compensation strategies are available.
56 However, no previous studies have used this approach.

57 Regarding the metrics, the interpretation of movement variability largely depends on the
58 method used to measure it (Srinivasan & Mathiassen, 2012). Usually, cycle-to-cycle
59 variability of discrete variables (e.g. range of motion, maximum force) is quantified
60 using linear measures (e.g. standard deviation (SD) or coefficient of variation (CV))
61 (Harbourne & Stergiou, 2009). To avoid problems associated with the use of discrete
62 values (e.g. wrong identification or limited information) it is also possible to use full-
63 waveform data to study the between-cycle variability by means of functional
64 measurements (Duhamel et al., 2004). Furthermore, other authors have proposed the use
65 of nonlinear tools (e.g. approximate entropy (ApEn)) to analyze the temporal structure
66 of variability. These tools study temporal variations in movement and are supposed to
67 provide information about the adaptability of the neuromuscular system to external
68 perturbations (Harbourne & Stergiou, 2009).

69

70 There is evidence of the usefulness of both linear and nonlinear measures to quantify
71 differences in variability between people with and without shoulder pain (Madeleine &
72 Madsen, 2009; Rice et al., 2014; Srinivasan & Mathiassen, 2012). Each method may
73 provide different and complementary information about motion performance, but there
74 are no clear indications about which metric it is better to use in each case (Srinivasan &
75 Mathiassen, 2012). The results of Rice et al. suggest that intra-individual variability
76 analysis is sensitive to shoulder pain (Rice et al., 2014), but no study has analyzed the
77 correlation between variability metrics and perceived pain, which may give an
78 indication of their suitability for assessing CSP.

79 The main aim of this work is to compare the extent and characteristics of movement
80 variability between individuals with and without CSP during humeral elevation, without
81 the possibility of using contiguous joints, i.e. constraining trunk and elbow motions.

82 The hypothesis is that movement variability will be greater in patients than in healthy
83 people, due to the difficulties of the nervous system finding compensatory strategies to
84 reduce the pain experienced during the task. This is based on the assumption that pain is
85 responsible for the variability.

86 Secondly, we intend to explore the usefulness of different variability metrics (i.e.
87 variability of discrete values, waveform variability and temporal structure variability),
88 establishing relationships with the intensity of perceived pain in people with CSP.

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94 **2. METHODS**

95

96 **2.1. Participants**

97

98 The study included a group of 37 individuals with right shoulder injury (IG), 27 men
99 and 10 women within the same age range, all of whom were suffering pain at the time
100 of the assessment, which lasted for at least three months. The CSP presented different
101 etiologies: supraspinatus tendinitis (n=19), supraspinatus tears (n=9), resolved anterior
102 dislocation (n=3), consolidated humerus fracture (n=2), arthritis (n=2), suprascapular
103 lipoma and supraspinatus and infraspinatus muscle atrophy (n=1) and shoulder ligament
104 sprain (n=1). They were all diagnosed by an experienced physician and clinical and
105 imaging tests were used.

106 The control group (CG) comprised 58 individuals (33 men and 25 women). None of
107 them had a structural pathology with shoulder, cervical or thoracic pain at least three
108 months before their assessment and they did not present a psychiatric disorder. All the
109 participants in the CG and IG were right handed.

110 All of the procedures were conducted in accordance with the principles of the World
111 Medical Association's Declaration of Helsinki and were approved by the ethics
112 committee of our institution. Involvement was voluntary and the participants signed an
113 informed consent form before data were collected.

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118 **2.2. Pain assessment**

119

120 The intensity of pain was measured at the beginning of assessment by a 100 mm visual
121 analog scale (VAS) (Carlsson, 1983). The VAS consisted of a continuous line between
122 two end-points, with 0 being "no pain" and 100 being "maximum tolerable pain".

123

124 **2.3. Kinematic analysis**

125

126 The participants sat on a rigid seat with a height-adjustable backrest, with their trunk
127 upright. The backrest was fixed at the middle of their thorax, providing maximum
128 support approximately at the level of the T4-T5 vertebrae. To avoid movement
129 compensations, the participant' pelvis, trunk and left arm were fastened with straps to
130 fix their position, allowing only the right arm to move. Elbow flexion-extension was
131 also constrained by means of a splint in the region of the forearm. The motions of the
132 arm and trunk were analyzed with seven reflective markers (Figure 1), according to the
133 procedures described in (López-Pascual, Cáceres, De Rosario, & Page, 2016).

134

135 *Figure 1 near here*

136

137 The trunk reference frame was defined in the initial posture as follows: the y-axis of the
138 trunk is coincident with the vertical direction, given by the global reference frame; the
139 x-axis is perpendicular to the plane formed by the y-axis and the line LA-RA; The z-
140 axis is computed as the cross product of the x-axis and the y-axis, resulting in the

141 transverse axis. The motion of the trunk was tracked by a technical cluster of markers
142 located on LA, the second dorsal vertebrae (D2), and the medial third of the scapular
143 spine (SC) (López-Pascual et al., 2016).

144 The starting position of the arm was fixed with its axis at 37.5° anteriorly to the coronal
145 plane of the trunk, and 45° down the transverse plane, with the aid of a guide marked on
146 a height-adjustable table and an electronic inclinometer. Thus, the initial orientation of
147 the humeral frame was defined as plane of elevation $\alpha = 37.5^\circ$, amount of elevation
148 $\beta = 45^\circ$, and axial rotation $\gamma = 0^\circ$.

149 The participants were instructed to lift their arm as much as they could, at a self-
150 determined comfortable speed, and maintain the maximum elevation for 3 seconds. This
151 gesture was repeated 5 consecutive times by each subject, holding a 250 g mallet to
152 standardize the starting and ending positions. The entire procedure was controlled by a
153 physiotherapist.

154

155 **2.4. Data analysis**

156

157 The motion of the markers was recorded by a stereophotogrammetry system (Kinescan-
158 IBV), with 4 CCTV cameras at 50 fps (Page, Candelas, & Belmar, 2006), and global
159 fixed frame aligned with the initial thoracic frame. Custom-written software in Matlab
160 R2010a (MathWorks, Natick, MA, USA) was used for the data processing.

161 The rotations of the thorax and the humerus from the starting position at any instant
162 were calculated using Rodrigues' vectors, according to the procedures described in
163 (López-Pascual et al., 2016). Humerothoracic motion for each subject was represented

164 using the XZ'Y'' Euler sequence, due to its better performance in terms of reliability
165 compared with YX'Y'' (López-Pascual et al., 2016).
166 Only the first rotation $\alpha_i(t)$ (humeral elevation) and its angular velocity $\dot{\alpha}_i(t)$ were used
167 in this study. The $\dot{\alpha}_i(t)$ waveforms were used to split out the $j=5$ repetitions of the
168 ascent phase of the elevation gesture. Times were normalized by means of a cubic
169 spline to represent the elevation cycles as intervals from 0% to 100% ($n=101$ data points
170 for each repetition), obtaining $\alpha_{ij}(n)$ and $\dot{\alpha}_{ij}(n)$.

171 The following variables were calculated for each subject (Table 1): maximum humeral
172 elevation (E_{max}), maximum angular velocity (V_{elmax}), coefficient of variation of the
173 maximum angle (CV_Emax), functional variability (Func_var) and approximate entropy
174 (ApEn). Parameters m and r for the calculation of ApEn were chosen according to the
175 empirical approach described in Ramdani et al. (Ramdani, Seigle, Lagarde, Bouchara, &
176 Bernard, 2009), obtaining the value $m = 2$ and $r = 0.2$, with $N = 1500$, where N is the
177 input data points, m is the length of compared runs, and r is the tolerance.

178

179 *Table 1 near here*

180

181 **2.5. Statistical analysis**

182

183 Statistical analysis of the data was performed by SPSS v21 (SPSS Inc, Chicago, IL,
184 USA).

185 First, we described the data. Standard statistical methods were used to obtain the mean
186 and standard deviation of the mean, the minimum and maximum.

187 An independent-samples Student's t-test was performed to explore the differences in the
188 dependent variables (kinematic variables) between the study groups (i.e. IG and CG) as
189 the independent factor. We evaluated the normality assumption with the Shapiro-Wilk
190 test and the homoscedasticity using a Levene test. If homoscedasticity was assumed, we
191 used Student's t-test. In case of heteroscedasticity, we used the Satterthwaite
192 approximation that adjusted the degrees of freedom. The effect size was reported with a
193 Pearson's r estimator.

194 After checking the normality assumption of the pain score distribution in the IG,
195 Spearman's correlation test was performed to establish the relationship between
196 kinematic variables and pain score (measured with the VAS). All tests of hypotheses
197 were conducted at the $\alpha = 0.05$ level (Type I error of 5%).

198

199 **3. RESULTS**

200

201 **3.1. Participants**

202

203 The CG was comprised of 58 healthy people (33 men, 25 women) with a mean (SD) age
204 of 42.47 (11.55) years, range 20 - 60; mean BMI of 25.12 (3.38) kg, range 19.20 -
205 33.65. The IG was comprised of 37 injured people (27 men, 10 women) with a mean
206 (SD) age of 49.81 (11.55) years, range 23 - 64; mean BMI of 27.71 (4.32) kg, range
207 19.88 - 41.28. In this group the mean (SD) for the VAS was 5.16 (2.06), range 0.5 - 8.
208 There were statistical differences between groups, both in age ($t(93) = -3.05, p < 0.01$)
209 and BMI ($t(93) = -3.27, p < 0.01$). Although the differences in mean were small (2.59
210 points for BMI and 7.34 years), we aimed to rule out the possibility that this could

211 influence the results of the study. To this end in each group we analyzed the association
212 between age and all the kinematic variables and also between BMI and all the kinematic
213 variables. We obtained no significant correlation with the kinematic data for age and
214 BMI ($p>0.05$), so the results presented below are not influenced by the effect of age or
215 BMI.

216

217 **3.2. Kinematic analysis**

218

219 To address the first goal of the study, a comparison between the two groups was
220 conducted of the assessment of kinematic variables during the defined analytical
221 movement. Table 2 shows the descriptive results of all the kinematic variables
222 depending on the grouping and the significant differences found between groups. As
223 can be observed, the CG showed a significantly greater Emax and Velmax and lower
224 movement variability, computed with three metrics (CVMmax, Func_var and ApEn).

225

226 *Table 2 near here*

227

228 Figure 2 is presented with the intention of better illustrating the characteristics of
229 movement performance of the CG (healthy case) and the IG (chronic shoulder pain
230 case). It can be observed that the healthy case achieved higher Emax and Velmax values
231 than the CSP case (maximum values in the y axes). The phase-plane plot (below) shows
232 that the curves corresponding to the five elevation cycles are almost superposed in the
233 healthy case, which results in a low Func_var value. In contrast, the CSP case shows
234 greater between-cycle variability and, therefore, a higher Func_var value. There are also

235 differences in the shape of the curves, which are smoother in the healthy case than in the
236 CSP case. This feature is related to the magnitude of ApEn, which is greater in the IG.
237 Smooth curves are believed to represent typical neuromuscular control, while irregular
238 curves with rapid increases or decreases in angular velocity are believed to be indicative
239 of poor control (Spinelli, Wattananon, Silfies, Talaty, & Ebaugh, 2015).

240

241 *Figure 2 near here*

242

243 **3.3. Relationship between pain and kinematic variables**

244

245 Regarding the secondary goal of the study, in which the relationship between pain and
246 kinematic data was explored, significant Spearman's correlations were found between
247 pain (measured with VAS) and all kinematic variables except CVEmax (i.e. variability
248 of the discrete variables) ($p > 0.05$). Therefore, the pain intensity score was significantly
249 correlated with Emax ($r = -0.44$, $p < 0.01$), Velmax ($r = -0.47$, $p < 0.01$), Func_var ($r =$
250 0.48 , $p < 0.01$) and ApEn ($r = -0.52$, $p < 0.01$).

251

252 **4. DISCUSSION**

253

254 This study aimed to analyze the impact that CSP has on movement performance and,
255 specifically, on its variability. Given the controversy about the relationship between
256 variability and shoulder pain, a novel methodological approach was used in this work.
257 We focused specifically on the target joint, isolating the shoulder movement by limiting
258 possible compensations by trunk and elbow motions. With this approach, we found

259 greater movement variability in the IG than in the CG and a significant correlation
260 between movement variability and perceived pain.

261 While previous works have focused on the analysis of activities of daily living (ADL)
262 or work-related activities (WRA), our study was the first to analyze the variability
263 pattern in people with CSP who were asked to perform a humeral elevation, limiting the
264 possible compensatory movements of the adjacent upper body structures.

265 This is based on the results of previous authors, who observed how patients with CSP
266 naturally develop optimal motor solutions for everyday tasks with the aim of avoiding
267 painful positions (Srinivasan & Mathiassen, 2012). The motion of the injured joint is
268 then constrained to small deviations around the optimal solution, resulting in reduced
269 shoulder ROM and variability (Bates et al., 2004). As a consequence, there is an
270 increase in the motion of other body segments in order to successfully accomplish the
271 task. These compensations were observed for the elbow, wrist and trunk in the study
272 conducted by Lomond and Côté in a repetitive reaching task (Lomond & Côté, 2010)
273 and by Madeleine and collaborators in a deboning task (Madeleine & Madsen, 2009)
274 and in a repetitive arm movement (Madeleine, Mathiassen, & Arendt-Nielsen, 2008). In
275 contrast, when pain was experimentally induced in healthy people, movement
276 variability increased (Madeleine et al., 2008). The explanation given to this different
277 behavior is that healthy individuals do not have a known compensatory strategy, thus
278 the neuromuscular system would be continuously searching for the optimal solution,
279 resulting in increased movement variability.

280 In our study, the movement executed by the participants is not an ADL or WRA and the
281 compensatory movements of the elbow and trunk were constrained. This is a new
282 situation for patients with CSP who, like healthy individuals with induced pain, do not

283 have a known optimal strategy for completing the task. As a consequence, we observed
284 lower Emax and Velmax values and increased movement variability in the IG compared
285 to the CG. The patients presented a 32.95% reduction in shoulder elevation and 69.02%
286 reduction in maximum angular velocity. Limitation of shoulder elevation is one of the
287 most common signs in patients suffering from shoulder pain and has already been
288 reported in previous studies with different pathologies: Illyés and Kiss in patients with
289 shoulder instability (Illyés & Kiss, 2006); McClure et al. in shoulder impingement
290 (McClure, Michener, & Karduna, 2006); Mell et al. in shoulder cuff tears (Mell et al.,
291 2005); and Rundquist et al. and Yang et al. in frozen shoulder (Rundquist, Anderson,
292 Guanche, & Ludewig, 2003; Yang, Chang, Chen, & Lin, 2008).

293 The lower angular velocity shown by the IG is in line with previous studies such as
294 Scibek et al., who showed that a reduction in patients' pain by means of a subacromial
295 lidocaine injection resulted in significant increases in humeral elevation velocity
296 (Scibek, Mell, Downie, Palmieri-Smith, & Hughes, 2010).

297 Regarding movement variability, there were higher values in the IG than in the CG,
298 irrespective of the approach used to calculate the variability (i.e. linear and nonlinear
299 methods). The three variability metrics computed in this study resulted in significant
300 differences between the CG and IG, with large effect sizes. The capability of this type
301 of variables for distinguishing between healthy and pathological individuals had already
302 been reported by Rice et al. (CVEmax) (Rice et al., 2014), Delval et al. (Func_var)
303 (Delval et al., 2008) and Stergiou et al. (ApEn) (Stergiou, Harbourne, & Cavanaugh,
304 2006). It should be mentioned that in our work both methods based on analysis of
305 motion curves (Func_var and ApEn) presented a greater effect size (Pearson's
306 correlation coefficient) than the CVEmax, which was computed using only the 5 values

307 of maximum elevation. These results are consistent with the study of correlations
308 between kinematic variables and pain intensity conducted.

309 In our study, significant negative correlations were achieved between the VAS score
310 and Emax and Velmax, as described in a previous study (Sarig Bahat, Weiss, Sprecher,
311 Krasovsky, & Laufer, 2014), in which correlation coefficients close to 0.5 were
312 obtained between VAS score and neck mobility.

313 Regarding variability metrics, moderate positive correlations were also found between
314 waveform variability (i.e. Func_var) and pain, and also for the temporal structure of
315 variability (i.e. ApEn) and pain. Nevertheless, pain and variability of discrete values
316 (CVEmax) were not significantly correlated. This suggests that variability metrics based
317 on curve analyses are more suitable for the study of the influence of pain on movement
318 performance.

319 Although some previous studies found differences in movement variability between
320 people with and without shoulder pain (Lomond & Côté, 2010; Madeleine & Madsen,
321 2009; Rice et al., 2014), so far no study has investigated the correlation between VAS
322 score and variability metrics.

323 Previous authors have already pointed out the clinical importance of the measurement of
324 angular velocity and movement variability to complement range of motion, strength and
325 muscle activity (Scibek et al., 2010; Spinelli et al., 2015). These variables may provide
326 relevant information to support decisions regarding the prescription and monitoring of
327 rehabilitation strategies (Scibek et al., 2010), as is the case with gait analysis (Yogev-
328 Seligmann, Giladi, Brozgol, & Hausdorff, 2012). It is in this regard that further studies
329 could explore variability patterns in pathologies that present similar clinical symptoms
330 (i.e. reduction of range of motion and /or pain) but different etiologies, such as

331 musculoskeletal disorders themselves or neuromuscular impairments, in order to
332 understand the pathology-specific variability in behavior and to better manage
333 rehabilitation.
334 Furthermore, the results of this work support the use of methods based on curve analysis
335 (Func_var and ApEn) rather than discrete values (CVEmax) to measure shoulder
336 movement variability in relation to CSP. However, no answer can be derived from this
337 study regarding the suitability of applying linear methods (Func_var) or nonlinear
338 methods (ApEn), as similar results were obtained. All the results should be used with
339 caution because we did not explore the possibility of obtaining different patterns
340 depending on the age or BMI.

341

342 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

343

344 As has been described above, movement variability is related to the stability of the
345 neuromuscular system (Clark & Phillips, 1993). Our findings support this, as we have
346 found increased variability in patients with CSP and a significant correlation with
347 perceived pain. These results support the importance of using constrained movements
348 for the assessment of CSP. This approach seems to be more adequate for evaluating the
349 effect of the injury on movement variability, which may be disguised by compensatory
350 strategies when executing ADL or WRA.

351

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353

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356

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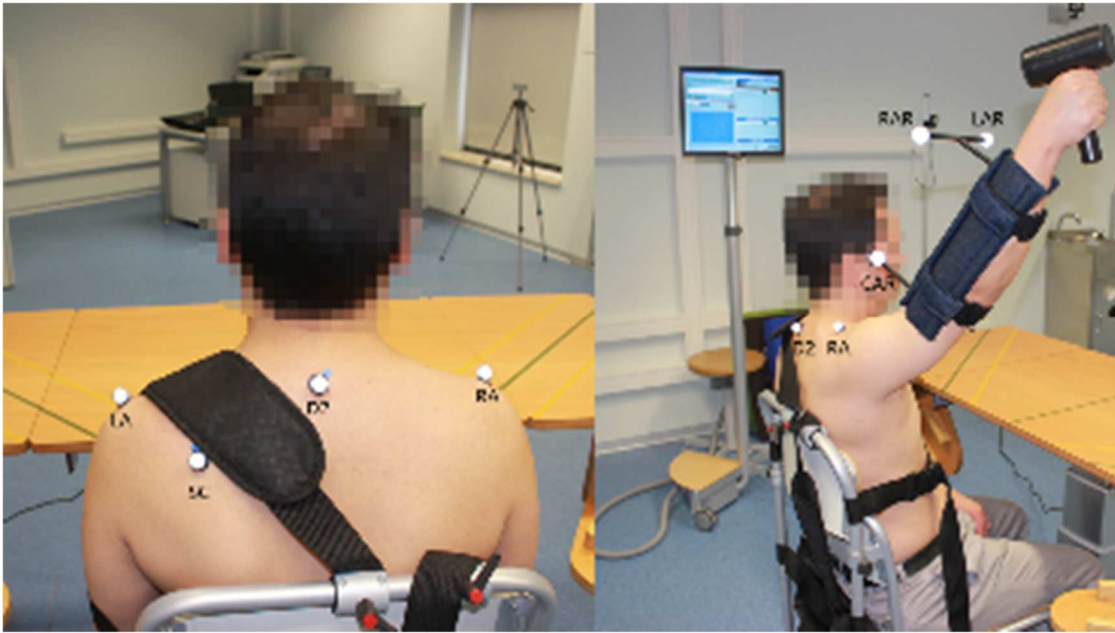
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- 452

453 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**



454

455 Figure 1. Instrumentation settings and markers.

456 LA: Left acromion; RA: Right acromion; SC: Medial third of the scapular spine; D2:

457 Second dorsal vertebra; CAR: Central arm; LAR: Left arm; RAR: Right arm; (Xt;Yt;Zt):

458 Trunk coordinate system; (Xh;Yh;Zh): Humerus coordinate system.

459

465 elevation; Velmax: maximum velocity; CVEmax: coefficient of variation of the
 466 maximum elevation; Func_var: functional variability; ApEn: approximate entropy.
 467

468 Table 1: Description of the variables used in the study

Code	Description	Calculation
E_{max} (°)	Maximum elevation: Mean of the maximum angles of humeral elevation achieved in the N repetitions	$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N \max(\alpha_j)$
Velmax (°/s)	Maximum velocity: Mean of the maximum angular velocities in humeral elevation achieved in the N repetitions	$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N \max(\dot{\alpha}_j)$
CVEmax (%)	Coefficient of variation of the maximum angle of humeral elevation, as a measure of between-cycles variability using discrete variables.	$\frac{\sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N (\max(\alpha_j) - E_{max})^2}}{E_{max}}$
Func_var (n.u.)	Functional variability , between-cycles variability computed using $\dot{\alpha}(n)$ waveform data as: $1 - ICC_{func}(\dot{\alpha}_j, \dots, \dot{\alpha}_N)$ (Duhamel et al., 2004)	$1 - \frac{MST_j - MSE_j}{MST_j + (N - 1) \times MSE_j}$
ApEn (n.u.)	Approximate entropy , as a measure of temporal structure of variability, computed from $\alpha(t)$ waveform data.	Where: $\phi^m(r) = (N - m + 1)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N-m+1} \log C_i^m(r)$ $\phi^m(r) - \phi^{m+1}(r) \quad (\text{Pincus, 1991})$

469 Where N is the total number of j repetitions of shoulder elevation performed in the test (5 for this study); α is the
 470 angle of elevation waveform (°); $\dot{\alpha}$ is the elevation angular velocity waveform (°/s); MST is the between-time mean
 471 square and MSE the within-time mean square from a one-way ANOVA per subject (Duhamel et al., 2004); The
 472 $C_i^m(r)$ values measure within the tolerance r the frequency of patterns similar to a given pattern of window length
 473 m (Pincus & Goldberger, 1994).

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479 Table 2: Comparative analysis of the kinematic variables of the control group and the
 480 injured group

	CG	IG	t-test results	Effect size (r)
E_{max} (°)	167.82 (7.15)	112.53 (28.73)	$T(38.86) = 11.48, p < 0.01$	0.88
Vel_{max} (°/s)	240.71 (63.37)	74.58 (55.24)	$T(93) = 13.08, p < 0.01$	0.80
CV_{E_{max}} (%)	1.25 (0.88)	3.33 (1.88)	$T(46.14) = -6.32, p < 0.01$	0.68
Func_{var} (n.u.)	0.06 (0.03)	0.36 (0.22)	$T(37.15) = -8.28, p < 0.01$	0.81
ApEn (n.u.)	0.16 (0.03)	0.30 (0.10)	$T(39.30) = -8.11, p < 0.01$	0.79

481

482 Data are expressed as mean (SD); CG: control group; IG: injured group; n.u.=no units;

483 E_{max}: Maximum humeral elevation; Vel_{max}: Maximum angular velocity; CV_{E_{max}}:

484 Variability of the maximum angle; Func_{var}: Functional variability; ApEn: Approximate

485 entropy.

486