

1 **Subacromial Impingement Syndrome: An Electromyographic Study of Shoulder Girdle**  
2 **Muscle Fatigue**

3 **Running Title:** Subacromial Impingement and Muscle Fatigue

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24 **ABSTRACT**

25 Muscle fatigue affecting glenohumeral and/or scapular muscles is suggested as one of the  
26 contributing factors to the development of subacromial impingement syndrome (SAIS).  
27 Nonetheless, the fatigability of shoulder girdle muscles in association with the pathomechanics  
28 of SAIS has not been reported. This study aimed to measure and compare fatigue progression  
29 within the shoulder girdle musculature of patients and healthy controls. 75 participants  
30 including 39 patients (20 females; 19 males) and 36 healthy controls (15 females; 21 males)  
31 participated in the study. Study evaluated the progression of muscle fatigue in 15 shoulder  
32 girdle muscles by means of surface and fine-wire EMG during submaximal contraction of four  
33 distinct movements (abduction, flexion, internal and external rotation). Shoulder strength,  
34 subjective pain experience (McGill Pain Questionnaire), and psychological status (Hospital  
35 Anxiety and Depression Scale) were also assessed. The results were compared between patient  
36 and control groups according to the gender. Despite marked fatigue observed in the majority  
37 of muscles particularly during flexion and abduction at 90°, overall results indicated a lower  
38 tendency of fatigue progression in the impingement group across the tests ( $0.05 < p < 0.05$ ).  
39 Shoulder Strength, pain experience, and psychological status were significantly different  
40 between the two groups ( $P < 0.05$ ). Lower tendency to fatigue progression in the impingement  
41 group can be attributed to the presence of fear avoidance and pain-related muscle inhibition,  
42 which in turn lead to adaptations in motor programme to reduce muscle recruitment and  
43 activation. The significantly higher levels of pain experience and anxiety/depression in the  
44 impingement group further support this proposition.

45 **Key Words:** Subacromial Impingement Syndrome; EMG; Muscle Fatigue; Fear-Avoidance,  
46 Muscle Inhibition; Psychological Status; Pain Experience

47 **1. INTRODUCTION**

48 Subacromial Impingement Syndrome (SAIS) is a common cause of shoulder pain and  
49 dysfunction in general population and athletes particularly during arm elevation within the  
50 painful arc (70°-120° of abduction and overhead movements (Seitz et al., 2011). The condition  
51 is a result of soft tissue compression (supraspinatus tendon in particular) within the subacromial  
52 space between the superior humerus and inferior acromion (Michener et al., 2003). The  
53 condition often leads to incapacitating pain, functional disability, poor quality of life, and  
54 dependency. Shoulder pain is generally more prevalent in females compared to men (22.8%-  
55 30.9% vs 13.3%-21.4%) of 25–64 years old (Pribicevic, 2012 ) and a strong association has  
56 been reported between SAIS and female gender (Camargo et al., 2007; Tangtrakulwanich and  
57 Kapkird, 2012).

58 In addition to intrinsic and extrinsic factors such as gender, anatomical misalignments, postural  
59 alterations, muscle strength/activation imbalances, and repetitive movements which have been  
60 linked to the development of SAIS (Koester et al., 2005; Seitz et al., 2011); shoulder girdle  
61 muscle fatigue has also been suggested as an intermediate biomechanical mechanism (Chopp  
62 and Dickerson, 2012; Chopp-Hurley et al., 2016; Michener et al., 2003). This proposition has  
63 been supported by observations of changes in the positioning of the humeral head and scapula  
64 following fatiguing protocols as the key shoulder girdle muscles attempt to stabilise the  
65 glenohumeral joint (Chopp-Hurley and Dickerson, 2015; Chopp-Hurley et al., 2016). While  
66 the rotator cuff muscles act to maintain a stable glenohumeral position and counteract  
67 destabilising shear force of the deltoid (Terrier et al., 2007; Yanagawa et al., 2008), peri-  
68 scapular stabilising muscles contract to maintain the position of the scapula (Ludewig et al.,  
69 2009; Michener et al., 2003; Phadke et al., 2009). Furthermore, considering the imperative role  
70 of the shoulder musculature in producing such coordinated and finely balanced shoulder  
71 motion, impairments and dysfunction of key muscles could potentially alter the motion of the

72 scapula, clavicle, and/or humerus (Ludewig and Cook, 2000; Phadke et al., 2009; Reddy et al.,  
73 2000; Struyf et al., 2014). Hence, increased fatigability of glenohumeral and scapulothoracic  
74 muscles may alter normal shoulder kinematics (i.e. increased superior glenohumeral migration  
75 and altered scapular positioning) and lead to the narrowing of subacromial space.

76 Rotator cuff fatigue and subsequent failure to counterbalance the upward pull of the deltoid on  
77 humerus has been strongly linked to the detrimental superior humeral translation (Chopp et al.,  
78 2010). This fatigue-induced abnormal kinematics and related impact on superior humeral head  
79 migration during arm elevation has been demonstrated by imaging studies using standard  
80 radiographs, magnetic resonance imaging, ultrasound, and computed tomography (Collins et  
81 al., 1987; Yamaguchi et al., 2000). A similar fatigue-induced phenomenon is expected to affect  
82 the normal function of key scapular stabilizing muscles (primarily serratus anterior and  
83 trapezius). In healthy shoulder, the scapula rotates upwards, tilts posteriorly, and retracts as the  
84 arm is abducted in order to increase subacromial space for the tissues between acromion and  
85 superior humerus (Michener et al., 2003). It has been shown that progression of fatigue causes  
86 downward rotation, anterior tilting and protraction of the scapula which subsequently leads to  
87 the rotation of the acromion into the subacromial space (scapular dyskinesis) (Chopp et al.,  
88 2011; Ludewig and Cook, 2000).

89 Localised muscular fatigue during muscular contraction is a time-dependent phenomenon  
90 expressed by tremor, pain, and incapability to maintain desired force output (De Luca, 1984).  
91 EMG is broadly used to quantify muscular fatigue by means of lower-frequency shift during  
92 sustained submaximal contraction and use of median frequency (MDF) slope as a fatigue index  
93 (Hawkes et al., 2015). The major body of related research has however focused on identifying  
94 the fatigue-induced changes in the kinematics of healthy shoulder in relation to the positioning  
95 of the head of humerus and orientation of scapula leaving a knowledge gap on the possible role

96 of muscle fatigue in the pathomechanics of SAIS. Hence, the present study used a combination  
97 of surface and fine-wire EMG to compare the fatigability of 15 shoulder girdle muscles/muscle  
98 segments of female and male patients with healthy controls during four characteristic shoulder  
99 movements to provide a better understanding of the role of muscle fatigue in association with  
100 the SAIS. Furthermore, considering general propositions that painful musculoskeletal  
101 conditions are associated with either increased or decreased fatigue of selected muscles due to  
102 fear avoidance and pain-related muscles inhibition phenomena; patients' pain experience and  
103 psychological status (anxiety and depression) were also evaluated (Alizadehkhayat et al.,  
104 2007; Leeuw et al., 2007; Sundstrup et al., 2016; Verbunt et al., 2005).

## 105 **2. METHODS**

### 106 **2.1. Participants**

107 A total of 75 controls and patients with SAIS participated in the study: 1) Control Group  
108 included 36 healthy volunteers with normal upper limb clinical assessment and no history of  
109 upper extremity painful conditions or surgery (15 females-42.9±9.3 years old; 21 males-  
110 47.6±10.3 years old); 2) Patient group comprised of 39 participants (20 females-55.5±5.3 years  
111 old; 19 males-54.2±8.1 years old) diagnosed by the same clinician from a single Upper Limb  
112 Unit. All patients presented with persistent shoulder pain for at least 12 weeks and a range of  
113 positive specific clinical tests (Painful arc, Neer's, Hawkin's, Lift Off, Empty Can) for the SAIS  
114 (Diercks et al., 2014). Patients with a coexisting musculoskeletal disorder affecting the upper  
115 limb, treatment other than for pain relief during the last three months, positive imaging (rotator  
116 cuff tear, instability, osteoarthritis), and systemic diseases affecting the function of neck, back  
117 and upper extremity were excluded. The study received Local Research Ethics Committee  
118 approval and participants gave written informed consent.

### 119 **2.2. Shoulder Strength Measurement**

120 The Mecmesin Shoulder Myometer and Emperor Lite software (Mecmesin Ltd. Slinfold, UK)  
121 were used to measure isometric MVC of different shoulder muscle groups with a real time  
122 feedback. The myometer was fixed to an adjustable extension arm attached to a chair designed  
123 for the strength measurements (Alizadehkhayat et al., 2014). Participants were seated in  
124 upright position with both hips and knees flexed to 90° and feet apart and flat on the ground.  
125 Strength was measured during four standard movements: (1) forward elevation with the  
126 shoulder at 90° flexion, elbow in extension and the forearm in pronation; (2) scapular plane  
127 elevation with the shoulder at 90° of abduction, elbow in extension and the hand in ‘full can’  
128 position; (3) and (4) external- and internal rotation with the shoulder in neutral position, the  
129 elbow in 90° flexion tucked to the side of the body and the forearm in neutral position. A  
130 goniometer ensured the correct arm positions. The strap of Mecmesin myometer was placed at  
131 the wrist level. After familiarisation, three MVC measurements were performed during 3-s  
132 trials with 1-minute rest in between the measurements. Participants received verbal  
133 encouragement during the experiment in order to apply maximal muscle contraction. The  
134 average the three measurements was considered 100% MVC.

### 135 **2.3. EMG - Fatigue Protocol**

136 EMG was recorded from 15 shoulder muscles/muscle segments during four distinctive  
137 shoulder movements through a fatiguing protocol. After skin preparation, disposable, self-  
138 adhesive pre-gelled Ag/AgCl bipolar EMG electrodes with conducting area of 10mm diameter  
139 and inter-electrode distance of 20mm (Noraxon Inc., Arizon, USA) were placed on anterior,  
140 middle, and posterior deltoid (AD, MD, PD), pectoralis major (PM), upper trapezius (UT),  
141 lower trapezius (UT), serratus anterior (SA), latissimus dorsi (LD), teres major (TM), biceps  
142 brachii (BB), levator scapulae (LS) according to guidelines (Delagi et al., 1994). Bipolar  
143 disposable hooked fine-wire electrodes (Nicolet Biomedical, Division of VIASYS, Madison,

144 USA) were used to record signals from the supraspinatus (SSP), infraspinatus (ISP),  
145 subscapularis (SUBS), and Rhomboid (RM) (Delagi et al., 1994).

146 EMG signals were recorded using a TeleMyo 2400 G2 Telemetry System (Noraxon Inc.,  
147 Arizona, USA). The EMG signals were recorded during a fatigue protocol by means of a  
148 sustained submaximal force exertion at 25% MVC of absolute strength in the testing positions  
149 described above (Section 2.2). After familiarization with the test, participants were instructed  
150 to exert a constant steady force at 25% MVC for 60-s or until exhaustion point guided by a real  
151 time visual feedback provided on a PC screen (i.e. sustained (>5s) drop of >5% in force).  
152 Recorded signals were differentially amplified (common mode rejection ratio >100 dB; input  
153 impedance >100 Mohm; gain 500 dB), digitised at a sampling rate of 3000 Hz and band-pass  
154 filtered ([10–500]Hz for surface electrodes and [10–1500]Hz for fine wire electrodes), and  
155 analysed off-line using MyoResearch XP software (Noraxon Inc., Arizona, USA). Muscle  
156 fatigue was quantified by means of changes in the median frequency (MDF) of the EMG signal  
157 over time: MDF was calculated at 1-s intervals, normalized to initial MDF, and the mean rate  
158 of the change (Slope) of MDF during contraction (assessed by least square linear regression)  
159 was used as the fatigue index (Slope%/min). A regression t-test was performed to determine  
160 whether the slope differed significantly from zero, with a significant p-value indicating EMG  
161 evidence of fatigue.

#### 162 **2.4. Pain and Psychological Status**

163 Subjective pain experience and psychological status were assessed using McGill Pain  
164 Questionnaire (MPQ)(Melzack, 1975) and Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS),  
165 respectively (Bjelland et al., 2002). MPQ provides a multidimensional evaluation of pain  
166 quality in terms of location, temporal pattern, description; and present intensity and has been  
167 suggested as an important tool for clinical evaluation of painful conditions (Camargo et al.,

168 2009). The HADS emphasizes the role of anxiety and depression in relation to chronic  
169 conditions and their impact on intervention outcomes. HADS has been reported to be efficient  
170 in assessing patients with chronic musculoskeletal pain including the common upper extremity  
171 conditions such as lateral epicondylitis, rotator cuff tears, and SAIS (Alizadehkhayat et al.,  
172 2007; Cho et al., 2015).



## 173 **2.5. Data Management and Statistical Analysis**

174 Descriptive statistics for shoulder muscle strength, pain (MPQ), and psychological status  
175 (HADS) were determined according to the originally established scoring formula for  
176 calculating the subscale and total scores of each questionnaire/functional score. With regard to  
177 EMG, Fast Fourier Transformation (FFT) and power spectrum analysis were applied to  
178 determine the MDF values in 1-s epochs which were then normalised relative to the start value.  
179 The mean rate of change of MDF over the duration of fatiguing tasks (Slope) was determined  
180 by linear regression and expressed as the fatigue index (MDF Slope%/min). A regression t-test  
181 was applied to determine whether the measured slope differed significantly from zero: a  
182 significant p-value indicating EMG evidence of fatigue. The fatigue index is used to report and  
183 compare the fatigability of individual muscles during the experiments (25% MVC of forward  
184 flexion, abduction, external and internal rotation) in female and male groups of SAIS patients  
185 and controls.

186 Results are reported separately for female and male groups of patient and controls and  
187 expressed as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation (SD) or standard error of the mean (SEM) as  
188 appropriate. The Shapiro-Wilk test was used to analyse normal distribution assumption of the  
189 quantitative outcomes. The variables were compared between the patient and control groups:  
190 for the data not normally distributed the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test and for the data  
191 with normal distribution the independent-sample t-test were used to determine significant  
192 between-group differences. The level of significance was set at  $p < 0.05$ . The SPSS statistical  
193 package (Version 20.0; IBM, Armonk, NY, USA) was used for analysis and modeling of the  
194 data.

195 **3. RESULTS**

196 **3.1 Muscle Strength, Pain, and Psychological Status**

197 Results for strength, pain, and psychological assessments are presented in Table 1. The strength  
198 measurements revealed markedly lower strength in all muscle groups ( $p < 0.001$ ) in female  
199 patients as compared to healthy controls with the highest deficit (~50%) observed in relation  
200 to flexors, abductors and internal rotators. Male Patients also had significantly reduced muscle  
201 strength for all muscle groups ( $p < 0.001$ ) compared to controls with the highest deficit (~30%)  
202 observed for internal rotators. The same as muscles strength, all measured pain and  
203 psychological variables indicated a significant difference between and SIAS patients and  
204 controls in both female and male groups ( $p < 0.001$ ) (i.e. higher amount of pain experience,  
205 anxiety and depression in patients).

206 **3.2 Muscle Fatigue**

207 The fatigue results (fatigue index) are presented as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation (SD) for female  
208 and male groups of patient and controls in Figures 1 and 2, respectively

209 **Muscle Fatigue in Female Participants**

210 There was a general trend for less fatigue development in female patients compared to controls.  
211 During forward flexion, patients showed lower fatigability trend in all muscles compared to  
212 health controls particularly in relation to the AD, TM, and ISP where a significantly lower level  
213 of fatigue ( $p < 0.05$ ) was found compared to controls. The highest amount of fatigue progression  
214 in patients was observed in the deltoids, AD in particular, followed by the BB and three major  
215 rotator cuff muscles; and in controls in the deltoids, rotator cuff (ISP in particular), and SA.  
216 During abduction, fatigue developed in all muscles except RM and TM in patients and RM,  
217 TM, ISP, and SUBS in controls. While ISP showed the highest fatigue development in patients,  
218 a marked fatigue in key scapular muscles (LT and SA) and deltoids occurred in both patients

219 and controls. Despite differing in the fatigability patterns of some muscles, no significant  
220 difference was found between patients and controls during abduction.

221 The external rotation task demonstrated a similar fatigability pattern between patients and  
222 controls with the highest fatigue developing in the ISP. While scapular muscles demonstrated  
223 a minimal effect of fatigue in controls, the same muscle group showed considerable  
224 involvement of the LT and RM in patients. During the internal rotation task, the UT was the  
225 only scapular muscle affected by fatigue in patients while a marked fatigue development in  
226 UT, LT and RM was observed in controls. Rotator cuff muscles all showed a higher fatigue  
227 trend in controls, SSP and SUBS in particular. The deltoid fatigue reflected similar patterns in  
228 both patients and controls.

#### 229 *Muscle Fatigue in Male Participants*

230 Similar to females, there was a general trend for less fatigue development in male patients  
231 compared to controls. During the forward flexion task, the highest level of fatigue in patients  
232 occurred in ISP followed by the deltoids and two scapular muscles: LT and SA. In controls,  
233 several muscles were fatigued with the highest in SUBS followed by AD, RM, TM, SA, and  
234 ISP. Abduction task generated marked fatigue in the majority of muscles in both groups except  
235 LS in patients and LS and PM in controls. A higher amount of fatigue progression occurred in  
236 the deltoids, rotator cuff, BB and SA of patients and deltoids, rotator cuff, and major scapular  
237 muscles (LT, and SA) of controls.

238 During external rotation task, both patients and controls demonstrated the highest level of  
239 fatigue in ISP followed by TM. A trend towards higher fatigue in patients was observed during  
240 this task compared to other three fatiguing tasks, similar to the pattern in female patients.  
241 Internal rotation task generated a modest level of fatigue in patients only in SSP while it was  
242 associated with marked fatigue development in several muscles of controls including SSP,

243 deltoids (MD and PD), and UT. A significant difference in the fatigue level was noted between  
244 controls and patients for MD ( $p<0.01$ ).

#### 245 **4. DISCUSSION**

246 Literature suggests that maintaining the subacromial space is essential to rotator cuff health.  
247 Among studied movements, rotator cuff muscles presented with marked fatigue progression  
248 more prominently during abduction at 90°, which incorporate the ‘painful arc’ as one of the  
249 key clinical characteristics of SAIS, in both female and male patients,. This is in agreement  
250 with the proposed mechanistic fatigue-related SAIS theory which suggests rotator cuff fatigue  
251 leads to superior humeral translation during arm elevation due to failure in maintaining the  
252 humeral head compression in the glenoid cavity (Chopp and Dickerson, 2012; Chopp-Hurley  
253 and Dickerson, 2015). In a study of shoulder muscle fatigue during an isometric flexion task at  
254 90° of humeral elevation, deltoids, ISP and SSP were the first muscles to show signs of fatigue  
255 (Nieminen et al., 1995).

256 It has also been shown that SSP functional losses are compensated by ISP in combination with  
257 the SUBS in order to counterbalance increased detrimental deltoid muscle forces during arm  
258 abduction and elevation. This is usually accompanied by pathological co-activation of large  
259 muscles with an adducting component (PM and LD) to support joint stability during arm  
260 abduction by offsetting destabilising high deltoid forces and resultant posterior-superior shift  
261 of the reaction force vector piercing point (Steenbrink et al., 2006; Steenbrink et al., 2009;  
262 Steenbrink et al., 2010). These compensatory mechanisms may explain the higher trend  
263 observed for the fatigue progression in ISP, SUBS, PM, and LD in SAIS patients during  
264 abduction. Furthermore, the overall higher fatigability of key scapular muscles during  
265 abduction is consistent with the second fatigue-related SAIS theory suggesting that fatigued  
266 and dysfunctional scapular muscles may lead to inappropriate positioning of the scapula  
267 (scapular dyskinesis) and subsequent reduction of the subacromial space (Phadke et al., 2009).

268 Different parts of trapezius are generally more active during abduction compared to other  
269 movements, which together with SA are aligned with a substantial mechanical advantage for  
270 scapular upward rotation. Increased activity of UT as a common compensatory strategy used  
271 by SAIS patients to assist clavicular and arm elevation and subsequent effort from LT and SA  
272 to counterbalance increased UT activity could explain marked fatigue progression observed in  
273 these muscles during abduction in SAIS patients (Lukasiewicz et al., 1999; McClure et al.,  
274 2006).

275 The overall results indicated a lower tendency of fatigue progression in patients compared to  
276 controls across the tests. While this finding could partially be attributed to a lower MVC  
277 intensity in patients due to pain, the presence of individual variations commonly associated  
278 with painful musculoskeletal conditions (including shoulder pain) might have substantially  
279 contributed to the lower progression of shoulder muscle fatigue in SAIS (Hodges and Tucker,  
280 2011). This is further supported by observations that some individuals apply similar activation  
281 patterns during arm elevation tasks when pain is induced in their shoulder compared to a non-  
282 painful condition or perform specific tasks in a more stereotyped style compared to others  
283 (Moseley and Hodges, 2006; Muceli et al., 2014). It has also been shown that patients with  
284 shoulder pain present with a range of muscle recruitment strategies and heterogeneous  
285 adaptation in motor control in response to pain due to this variability factor (Hodges and  
286 Tucker, 2011; Struyf et al., 2015). Previous reports have interrelated the individual response to  
287 pain to an increase of motor control variability as CNS examines different biomechanical  
288 pathways to sufficiently accomplish the motor task while the “damaged” tissue is preserved  
289 (Muceli et al., 2014). Furthermore, other studies have shown subject-specific and non-  
290 stereotyped adaptations in the activity of individual muscles (reorganization of motor control)  
291 in response to painful stimuli in order to cope with the pain and accomplish the requested  
292 functional task (Gizzi et al., 2015).

293 Two other well-recognised phenomena might also contribute to a lower progression of fatigue  
294 in SAIS patients: fear avoidance pathway (fear of pain) and/or pain-related inhibition  
295 mechanism (pain-adaptation theory with less muscle contribution). Fear-avoidance pathway  
296 with its four components of catastrophizing, fear of pain, fear of movement, and fear-avoidance  
297 beliefs has been suggested to generate a vicious cycle of dysfunction over time leading to  
298 disability by means of influencing muscle activity and contribution towards the movements  
299 (Carleton et al., 2006; Verbunt et al., 2005). It is generally accepted that fear of pain (made up  
300 of psychophysiological, behavioural, and cognitive elements) and consequent pain-avoidance  
301 are fundamental components of the fear-avoidance pathway within which fear comprises an  
302 emotional reaction to an instantaneous threat while pain incorporates psychological, social, and  
303 pathological aspects (Carleton et al., 2006; Lentz et al., 2009). It is generally speculated that  
304 pain-related beliefs, as such forceful movements aggravate pain, initiate an inhibitory feedback  
305 through high force excitation of golgi organs leading to diminished neural drive with  
306 subsequent impact on muscle recruitment during isometric contractions (Graven-Nielsen et al.,  
307 2002). The fact that present study found a significantly higher levels of pain and anxiety in  
308 patient groups further supports the potential role of fear-avoidance pathway towards lower  
309 tendency to fatigue progression in patients. This finding is also in line with the propositions  
310 that pain-related fear has a positive association with shoulder-related disability and changes  
311 such as reduced shoulder function or full-avoidance of a movement are associated with a range  
312 of psychosocial features (Karels et al., 2007; Lentz et al., 2009).

313 In terms of muscle inhibition mechanism; literature suggest that in patients with chronic  
314 musculoskeletal pain the ability for rapid force development and subsequent functional  
315 capacity is markedly impaired during movements by pain inhibition of motor outflow and  
316 inflicting a threat response (Carleton et al., 2006; Steingrimsdottir et al., 2004). In an EMG  
317 study of relationships between biopsychosocial factors and chronic pain, Sundstrup et

318 al,(Sundstrup et al., 2016) demonstrated a markedly reduced neuromuscular function of the  
319 shoulder and hand in individuals with chronic upper limb pain compared to healthy controls.  
320 This pathway encompasses stimulation of the mechanoreceptors within affected joint/muscle  
321 tissue and thus blocking the nociceptive signal and pain gate over time through frequent  
322 excitation of inhibitory interneurons (Zimny, 1988). It has been proposed that decreased  
323 excitability of the motor cortex induced by pain-induced inhibition pathway is preferentially  
324 located in the muscles nearby the painful area and can last for many hours after the recovery  
325 from pain (Le Pera et al., 2001).

326 With regard to the shoulder, it has been shown that pain-dependent inhibition of the primary  
327 motor cortex is associated with employing a compensatory muscle activation strategy and  
328 different motor programme (from subtle changes in the contribution level of synergist muscles  
329 to a complete avoidance of movement) to maintain motor output during painful movement  
330 while protecting injured/painful tissues (Hodges and Tucker, 2011; Struyf et al., 2015).  
331 Electromyographic studies of the shoulder have reported a significantly decreased  
332 glenohumeral (primarily rotator cuff and deltoids) muscle activity during abduction and flexion  
333 in SAIS patients compared to healthy controls which in turn could contribute to the  
334 development of SAIS by means of increased superior translation of the humeral head (Myers  
335 et al., 2009; Reddy et al., 2000). In terms of scapular muscles, several investigators have  
336 reported reduced activity of trapezius, middle and lower serratus anterior during arm elevation  
337 and rotational movements in patients with painful shoulder pathologies including SAIS as  
338 compared to healthy controls (Ludewig and Cook, 2000; Scovazzo et al., 1991). This marked  
339 reduction in rate of EMG rise in the presence of upper limb chronic pain has been suggested as  
340 a neural adaptation mechanism due to reduced motor neuron firing frequency and recruitment  
341 of high-threshold motor units (Sundstrup et al., 2016; Van Cutsem et al., 1998). Hence, these  
342 two protection mechanisms (fear-avoidance and pain-related muscle inhibition) could have

343 attributed to the generally lower or similar level of fatigue progression between patients and  
344 controls as a result of alterations in muscle activation and contribution (decreased firing or de-  
345 recruitment of some motor units) in the muscles affected by pain experience/perception.

### 346 **Study Limitations**

347 While shoulder muscle fatigue has been increasingly studied using EMG in healthy subjects  
348 particularly during isometric arm elevation tasks, experimental evaluation of muscle fatigue  
349 development in painful conditions such as SAIS remains a significant challenge due to inherent  
350 limitations in measurement and protocol capabilities that complicate comparisons with healthy  
351 controls (Chopp et al., 2011; Chopp et al., 2010). The main limitations include difficulty in  
352 designing a functional movement with sustainable contraction at a level that can categorically  
353 fatigue upper extremity muscles due to concomitant anticipation of pain or pain experience.  
354 Some authors have reported that subjects with pain exert submaximal force rather than “true”  
355 maximal force during MVC testing with subsequent influence on the rate of fatigue  
356 development (Candotti et al., 2009). Nevertheless, patients in the present study developed  
357 marked localized muscle fatigue while performing the evaluation protocol as fatigue index  
358 (slope%/min) differed significantly from zero (See section 2-3 for details. Furthermore, it has  
359 been shown that upper extremity motor strategies and related muscle activation patterns are  
360 altered because of pain experience by means of fear avoidance (fear of pain) and pain-related  
361 muscle inhibition to protect affected tissues (Alizadehkhayat et al., 2007; Diederichsen et al.,  
362 2009). These mechanisms can subsequently affect the recruitment strategy and contribution of  
363 muscles into movements and influence fatigue initiation and development (Leeuw et al., 2007;  
364 Sundstrup et al., 2016; Verbunt et al., 2005). In order to moderate this limitation a pain-free  
365 submaximal voluntary contractions (25% MVC) together with synchronised EMG and visual  
366 feedback were used in the study during fatiguing protocols for evaluating muscle fatigue. The  
367 application of such-submaximal contractions would have facilitated a more realistic measure



368 of muscles fatigue by producing sufficient fatiguing force (25% MVC) while limiting the pain  
369 experience and potential sources of confounding.

370 The usage of fine-wire intramuscular EMG electrodes to record from deep muscles, such as  
371 the rotator cuff muscles, is associated with common technical difficulties such as poor electrode  
372 placement and electrode migration during movement. Large standard deviations, mainly due  
373 to relatively small sample size and individual variations in the muscle activity patterns might  
374 blur the results. It might be possible that the pain experienced during the MVC testing by some  
375 participants would have affected MVC assessments and subsequent fatigue protocol. The study  
376 attempted to minimise such effect by means of using a normalised fatigue index. Authors are  
377 aware of this limitation but also acknowledge that there is no supreme method for such  
378 measurements in painful conditions such as SAIS. The sample size was relatively small  
379 because of separate data reporting for female and male groups of patients and controls. This  
380 approach was chosen considering a significant association between SAIS and female  
381 gender(Tangtrakulwanich and Kapkird, 2012) and higher prevalence of shoulder pain in  
382 females as compared to men (22.8%-30.9% vs 13.3%-21.4% in the 25–64 years) (Pribicevic,  
383 2012 ). Although study attempted to minimise pain during EMG experiments by applying a  
384 pain-free submaximal contraction, it might not have possible to fully avoid pain experience by  
385 some participants.

## 386 **CONCLUSION**

387 While fatigue-related mechanisms have been suggested to contribute to the development of  
388 SAIS, existing knowledge on the fatigability of shoulder girdle muscles in SAIS patients is  
389 sparse mainly due to technical and methodological challenges. The present study explored and  
390 compared fatigue progression in SAIS patients and healthy pain-free controls during four  
391 distinct shoulder movements along with subjective pain experience and psychological status.  
392 Despite notable development of fatigue in the majority of studied muscles in SAIS patients, it

393 was not significantly different from that in healthy controls. This finding can be hypothetically  
394 explained through two major phenomena, 'fear-avoidance and pain-related muscle inhibition',  
395 and subsequent adaptations in motor programme and recruitment strategy. This is further  
396 supported by significantly higher pain experience and anxiety/depression levels observed in  
397 patients. The findings provide a base of knowledge for future clinical studies aiming to develop  
398 optimal and evidence-based prevention and rehabilitation interventions. Future studies  
399 investigating shoulder muscle fatigue during different pain-free motions representative of daily  
400 and work/sport-related functions are required.

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556 **Table and Figure Legends**

557 **Table1.** Comparisons of strength, pain, and psychological status - Mean (SD) - of the affected  
558 shoulders of female and male SAIS patients with healthy controls

559 **MPQ:** McGill pain questionnaire; **HADS:** Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (AC: Anxiety Component; DC: Depression  
560 Component); All measurements showed statistically significant differences between patients and controls in both female and  
561 male groups ( $p < 0.001$ ).

562 **Figure 1.** Mean muscle fatigue of 15 shoulder girdle muscles presented as medium frequency  
563 slope (%/min) for **female** impingement patients and controls at 25% maximum voluntary  
564 contraction (MVC) during isometric flexion, abduction, external rotation and internal rotation.

565 **LS:** Levator Scapulae; **UT:** Upper Trapezius; **LT:** Lower Trapezius; **SA:** Serratus Anterior; **RHOM:** Rhomboid Major; **LD:**  
566 Latissimus Doris; **TM:** Teres Major; **PM:** Pectoralis Major; **BB:** Biceps Brachii; **SSP:** Supraspinatus; **ISP:** Infraspinatus;  
567 **SUBS:** Subscapularis; **AD:** Anterior Deltoid; **MD:** Middle Deltoid, **PD:** Posterior Deltoid. \*:  $p$  values significant at  $< 0.05$

568 **Figure 2.** Mean muscle fatigue of 15 shoulder girdle muscles presented as medium frequency  
569 slope (%/min) for **male** impingement patients and controls at 25% maximum voluntary  
570 contraction (MVC) during isometric flexion, abduction, external rotation and internal rotation.

571 **LS:** Levator Scapulae; **UT:** Upper Trapezius; **LT:** Lower Trapezius; **SA:** Serratus Anterior; **RHOM:** Rhomboid  
572 Major; **LD:** Latissimus Doris; **TM:** Teres Major; **PM:** Pectoralis Major; **BB:** Biceps Brachii; **SSP:**  
573 Supraspinatus; **ISP:** Infraspinatus; **SUBS:** Subscapularis; **AD:** Anterior Deltoid; **MD:** Middle Deltoid, **PD:**  
574 Posterior Deltoid. \*:  $p$  values significant at  $< 0.05$