

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