

**Understanding the impact of trunk and arm impairment on wheelchair rugby
performance during competition**

Original Investigation

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Running head: Wheelchair rugby classification

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1 Abstract

2 **Purpose:** To determine the effect of trunk and arm impairment on physical and technical
3 performance during wheelchair rugby (WR) competition. **Methods:** Thirty-one highly trained
4 WR players grouped according to their trunk (no trunk [NT]; some trunk [T] function) and
5 arm impairment (poor [PAF]; moderate [MAF]; good [GAF] arm function) participated in 5
6 WR matches. Player's physical (wheelchair mobility) and technical (ball handling) activities
7 were analysed using an indoor tracking system and video analysis respectively. **Results:**
8 Trunk impairment explained some of the variance in physical (10.6–23.5%) and technical
9 (16.2–33.0%) performance. T covered more distance, had more possession, scored more
10 goals, received and made more passes, yet spent less time at low speeds and performed fewer
11 inbounds than NT (≤ 0.05). Arm impairment explained some of the variance in all physical
12 (16.7–47.0%) and the majority of technical (13.1–53.3%) performance measures. MAF and
13 GAF covered more distance, reached higher peak speeds, spent more time in higher speed
14 zones, scored more goals, had more possession, received and made more passes, with a
15 higher percentage of one-handed and long passes than PAF. GAF also received more passes
16 and made a higher percentage of one-handed passes and defensive blocks than MAF ($P \leq$
17 0.05). **Conclusions:** Arm impairment impacts a greater number of physical and technical
18 measures of performance specific to WR than trunk impairment during competition. Having
19 active finger function (GAF) yielded no further improvements in physical performance but
20 positively influenced a small number of technical skills.

21

22 **Keywords:** activity limitation; classification; Paralympic sport; activity profiles

23 **Introduction**

24 Wheelchair rugby (WR) is a Paralympic team sport originally developed for
25 individuals with tetraplegia resulting from a spinal cord injury (SCI), with other impairments
26 such as multiple amputations, cerebral palsy and neuromuscular diseases also eligible to
27 participate.¹ As with most Paralympic sports, a classification system exists in order to
28 minimise the impact of impairment on the outcomes of competition.² Classification in WR is
29 largely dependent on the physical assessment of trunk and arm function. Point scores between
30 0-1.5 are awarded to represent trunk function. Both arms are scored between 0.5-3.5 and then
31 averaged to provide an ‘arm score’, which is added to the ‘trunk score’ to give an overall
32 classification. Currently, players are classified into one of seven categories ranging from 0.5
33 (most impaired) to 3.5 (least impaired) at 0.5 increments. Rules stipulate that teams are
34 allowed 4 players not exceeding 8.0 points on court at a given time.¹

35 The influence of WR classification on both physical³⁻⁵ and technical^{6,7} aspects of
36 performance have been investigated during competition. Yet, these studies have only
37 considered the overall classification, with players typically allocated into low- (≤ 1.5) and
38 high-point (≥ 2.0) groups and have failed to consider the individual contribution of trunk and
39 arm impairment towards performance. Recently, during standardised WR field testing it has
40 been revealed that trunk impairment affected acceleration performance and the impulse of a
41 hit, whereby arm impairment influenced sprinting (> 2 m) and manoeuvrability
42 performance.^{8,9} However, the effect of trunk and arm impairment on technical aspects of WR
43 performance have not been examined and the impact of these impairments upon activity
44 limitation has never been investigated during competition. This type of research would
45 further understanding about activity limitations under sport-specific conditions, as advocated
46 by the International Paralympic Committee.²

47 The objectives of the current study were to determine the effect of trunk and arm
48 impairment on physical and technical aspects of WR performance during competition. It was
49 hypothesised that trunk impairment would affect physical measures, whereas arm impairment
50 would have more of a bearing on technical measures of performance. The findings of this
51 study will increase our understanding of impairment of the trunk and the arms and their
52 specific effects on performance. This information could benefit coaches, athletes and
53 practitioners from a performance perspective. Furthermore it could benefit classifiers, and
54 both the International Wheelchair Rugby Federation (IWRF) and the International
55 Paralympic Committee to move towards an evidence-based classification system.

56

57 **Methods**

58 **Participants**

59 Highly trained WR players ($n = 31$; age = 31 ± 7 years; international playing
60 experience = 8 ± 6 years; range = 1 - 24 years) from 3 of the world top 10-ranked
61 international teams in 2015 participated in the study. Players all had a confirmed international
62 classification and presented for the following health conditions: SCI ($n = 21$), neuromuscular
63 disease ($n = 3$), cerebral palsy ($n = 2$) and skeletal dysplasia ($n = 5$). Players were grouped
64 according to their trunk and arm impairment scores. Impairment was determined by licenced
65 IWRF classifiers, based on the IWRF classification manual (3rd edition, revised 2015).¹⁰ The
66 score for arm impairment, ranging from 0.5 - 3.5 with 0.5 increments, was based on Manual
67 Muscle Testing (MMT) according to the methodology of “Daniels and Worthingham’s
68 muscle testing”¹¹ for those with impaired muscle strength. Athletes with other eligible
69 impairment types are classified based on a similar impact of this impairment on the ability to
70 perform activities in wheelchair rugby.¹⁰ The score for trunk impairment, ranging from 0 -
71 1.5, also with 0.5 increments, was based on Trunk Impairment Classification.¹² In brief, those

72 with complete paralysis of all trunk muscles were categorised as ‘no trunk’ (NT; trunk score
73 = 0; $n = 18$), while those with moderate to good trunk function were categorised as ‘trunk’ (T;
74 trunk score = 0.5-1.5; $n = 13$). Players with muscle weakness (MMT 0-3) around the
75 shoulders, elbows and wrists and no active finger function were categorised as ‘poor arm
76 function’ (PAF; arm score ≤ 1.5 ; $n = 12$). Those with no muscle weakness (MMT 4-5) around
77 the shoulders, elbows and wrists, but with minimal to no active finger function were classed
78 as ‘moderate arm function’ (MAF; arm score = 2.0; $n = 13$). In addition to the characteristics
79 of MAF, players with significant active finger function were classed as having ‘good arm
80 function’ (GAF; arm score ≥ 2.5 ; $n = 6$). The difference between PAF and MAF/GAF is
81 mainly the strength in the proximal muscles around the shoulders and the elbows. Both MAF
82 and GAF have no muscle weakness around the shoulders and the elbows, but GAF have more
83 function in the fingers. The combinations of trunk and arm scores for all participants are
84 displayed in Table 1. All procedures outlined in the study were approved by Loughborough
85 University’s ethical advisory committee and all players provided written informed consent.

86

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INSERT TABLE 1 HERE

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89 **Procedures**

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Data were collected at an international WR competition in 2015. The three participating teams each competed in 5 matches over 5-days on the same indoor court (28 x 15 m). Physical data about players’ individual activity profiles and technical data relating to ball handling activities were monitored during all matches using player tracking technology and video analysis respectively. Data was collected during every instance that a player was on court. A total of 390 individual observations were collected, with an observation defined

96 as a period whereby a player was on court during each quarter. The mean playing time per
97 quarter across all players was 02:06 ± 01:07 and ranged from 00:22 to 04:41 (hh:mm).

98 Activity profiles were collected during matches using a radio-frequency based indoor
99 tracking system (ITS) operating at 8Hz (Ubisense, Cambridge, UK), which has been
100 validated¹³ and used to quantify the physical demands of WR competition.^{3,4} Data collection
101 commenced at the beginning and ceased at the end of each quarter and was only paused
102 during periods of delayed stoppages. Raw positional data were filtered according to previous
103 guidelines¹³ and then used to calculate the following: i) relative distance (distance covered
104 per minute of playing time); ii) peak speed (highest speed observed across all match
105 observations); iii) relative time spent in a total of six arbitrary speed zones (Z1-Z6), for all
106 players (Table 2). These parameters were included based on their previous association with
107 successful performance in WR.⁴ Only individual match observations lasting ≥ 3 minutes were
108 processed for all players across all matches.

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112 Technical data were collected during matches using 2 synchronised video cameras
113 (Sony HDR-HC9, Tokyo, Japan). Each camera was equipped with a wide angle conversion
114 lens (Raynox HD-5050PRO, Tokyo, Japan) and positioned at the halfway line. Video footage
115 was analysed using Dartfish TeamPro Data 6.0 (Fribourg, Switzerland) by one analyst
116 experienced with both the software and WR. Descriptions of the coded activities are
117 displayed in Table 3. These technical activities were selected based on previous research,
118 which has emphasised the importance of these parameters in overall performance in WR.^{6,7}
119 Since the duration of match-play varied between players across the competition, frequency
120 statistics (goals scored, passes received etc.) were scaled up or down to represent the

121 frequency of occurrences of each activity relative to a 32-minute match, using the total times
122 from the ITS. A whole quarter of match play for each of the 3 teams was re-analysed by the
123 same analyst and an additional analyst to determine intra- and inter-observer reliability.
124 Intraclass correlation coefficients (ICC) were ≥ 0.93 for intra-observer reliability and ≥ 0.68
125 for inter-observer reliability across all variables, which are classed as substantial
126 agreements¹⁴ and were deemed acceptable based on previous work utilising a similar
127 analyses with wheelchair basketball.¹⁵

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131 **Statistical Analyses**

132 Statistical analyses were conducted using the Statistical Package for the Social
133 Sciences (SPSS version 22.0, Chicago, IL). Multiple forward linear regressions determined
134 the explained variance in each of the performance measures as a result of both trunk and arm
135 impairment. An independent variable (trunk and arm group) was only entered into the
136 regression if it was significantly related to the dependent variable being explored. Kruskal-
137 Wallis tests determined any statistically significant ($P < 0.05$) main effects between both
138 trunk and arm impairment and performance measures. All performance measures that were
139 successfully entered into the regression model or were significantly influenced by trunk or
140 arm impairment (according to the Kruskal-Wallis tests) were analysed further using effect
141 sizes (ES). Calculated as the ratio of the mean difference in relation to the pooled standard
142 deviation of the difference, ES were used to determine the magnitude of any differences
143 between trunk (NT & T) and arm (PAF, MAF & GAF) impairments and were defined as
144 trivial (< 0.2), small (0.2–0.6), moderate (0.6–1.2), large (1.2–2.0) and very large (> 2.0)
145 effects.¹⁶ 90% confidence intervals (90% CI) were also calculated to determine the range

146 within which the true ES existed.¹⁶ A meaningful effect was identified when ES were \geq
147 moderate and the 90% CI did not span into trivial differences.

148

149 **Results**

150 Table 4 presents the explained variance in physical and technical performance
151 according to trunk and arm impairment. Trunk and/or arm impairment contributed to the
152 explained variance observed in all measures of performance except catch success rate and the
153 number of blocks performed, which were removed from further analysis.

154

155 INSERT TABLE 4 HERE

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157 Trunk impairment explained some of the variance in all physical measures of
158 performance, with the exception of relative time spent in Z2, Z5 and Z6 (Table 4). Variance
159 ranged from as little as 10.6% for peak speed, to as much as 23.5% for time spent in Z1.
160 Significant and meaningful differences were only observed between trunk groups for relative
161 distance ($P = 0.020$) and time spent in Z1 ($P = 0.003$), where T covered more distance (ES =
162 0.92 [0.27 to 1.53]) and spent less time in Z1 (ES = -1.15 [-0.48 to -1.77]) than NT (Fig. 1).

163 Trunk impairment also explained some of the variance observed in technical measures
164 of performance (Table 4). Although trunk impairment contributed to the variance observed in
165 the number of turnovers forced (10.5%) and goals scored by driving into the key (14.9%),
166 differences between trunk groups were neither significant nor meaningful (Fig. 1). The
167 majority of variance in technical measures of performance explained by trunk impairment
168 was for possession duration, passes received, passes and pick-ups made, goals scored and
169 inbounds performed (16.2 to 33.0%). Significant and meaningful effects existed for T to

170 perform fewer inbounds yet score more goals, receive more passes, be in possession longer,
171 make more pick-ups and less passes than NT (Fig. 1).

172

173 INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE

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175 Arm impairment explained some of the variance and had a significant effect ($P \leq$
176 0.024) on all physical measures of performance ranging from 16.7% to 47.0% for the time
177 spent in Z3 and Z5 respectively. Meaningful effects were revealed for both GAF and MAF to
178 cover greater distance, reach higher peak speeds, spend more time in Z3 to Z6 and less time
179 in Z1 than PAF. MAF also spent less time in Z2 than PAF. No meaningful differences were
180 observed between GAF and MAF for any physical measure of performance (Fig. 2).

181 Arm impairment also explained a large amount of the variation in technical
182 performance for all measures except the percentage of goals scored by driving into the key
183 and the number of inbounds performed. Arm impairment accounted for as little as 13.1%
184 (pick-ups made) to 53.3% (passes received) of the explained variance and was statistically
185 significant ($P \leq 0.022$) for all other technical measures of performance (Table 3). Meaningful
186 effects were revealed for GAF and MAF to score more goals, receive more passes, be in
187 possession longer, make more passes, with a higher percentage of one-handed and long
188 passes, make more assists, yet have a lower pass success rate than PAF. GAF made a higher
189 percentage of one-handed passes and made a higher percentage of defensive blocks than
190 MAF (Fig. 3).

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192 INSERT FIGURE 2 & 3 HERE

193

194 **Discussion**

195 Owing to innovative technology and a detailed breakdown of players' classification,
196 the current study was the first to explore the impact of trunk and arm impairment on physical
197 and technical measures of WR performance during competitive match play at the highest
198 international level.

199 With regards to physical performance, trunk impairment only had a meaningful effect
200 on the relative distance covered and the time spent at very low speeds (Z1), whereby T
201 covered greater distances and spent less time in Z1 than NT. Active trunk flexion has been
202 shown to only occur during the initial push, after which the trunk remains relatively stable
203 during sprinting tasks.^{17,18} Therefore trunk function has a key role in acceleration
204 performance, which has previously been demonstrated in WR players.⁸ The increased
205 distance covered by T could be a consequence of the improved acceleration performance and
206 an accumulation of repeated acceleration activities a player performs, since WR players are
207 frequently required to start from a standstill during games.¹⁹ Similarly, the reduced time
208 spent in Z1 by T maybe a consequence of trunk function in initial acceleration, whereas trunk
209 function does not contribute to continued acceleration and therefore did not impact upon on
210 the time spent at higher speed zones or peak speed. The seemingly limited contribution of
211 trunk impairment towards performance could be attributed to the type of measures analysed,
212 which did not cover all activities that could possibly be affected by trunk impairment.
213 Altmann et al.⁸ already suggested that trunk impairment can have a significant bearing on
214 acceleration performance, which unfortunately could not be quantified directly within the
215 current study. Moreover, manoeuvrability is also a key indicator of mobility performance in
216 WR,²⁰ yet it is difficult to quantify objectively, especially in a competition environment.

217 Interestingly, trunk impairment contributed to the explained variance observed in a
218 number of technical variables specific to WR with T shown to score more goals, spend more
219 time in possession, receive a higher number of passes and make a higher number of pick-ups.

220 All these parameters are indicators of offensive game efficiency.^{6,7} No meaningful effects of
221 trunk impairment on defensive aspects of performance were revealed (number of turnovers
222 forced / blocks performed), which may have been anticipated based on the previous
223 association between trunk function and the impulse of a hit in WR.⁸ Observations that NT
224 performed more passes and inbounds was likely a tactical decision to help enable players
225 with some trunk function to carry out these offensive duties. Overall, results implied that
226 trunk function has more of an impact on offensive aspects of WR performance.

227 Unlike trunk impairment, arm impairment was shown to impact upon all physical
228 measures of performance measured in the current study, although differences were only
229 observed between players with PAF in relation to both MAF and GAF. Players with superior
230 arm function (MAF and GAF) covered more distance, reached higher peak speeds, spent less
231 time in low speed zones (Z1 & Z2) and more time in moderate to maximal speed zones (Z3-
232 Z6). The fact that superior arm function was associated with greater peak speeds supported
233 previous findings whereby arm impairment was shown to affect sprinting performance > 2
234 m.⁸ It has been suggested that the trunk is actively involved during initial acceleration, yet
235 once momentum has been developed it merely acts as a stable base for the arms to drive the
236 wheels,^{8,21} which is in line with the current findings.

237 Proximal muscle weakness is the key difference between athletes with PAF and those
238 with both MAF and GAF. Therefore the differences in physical performance observed
239 between athletes with PAF and both MAF and GAF demonstrated the important role of
240 proximal muscles of the arms during WR-specific propulsion. Superior shoulder and triceps
241 function is likely to allow for improved propulsion kinematics and kinetics, with both a
242 longer push angle and greater force application anticipated respectively.²² Alternatively,
243 since no meaningful differences in physical performance were observed between MAF and
244 GAF, it suggests that distal muscle weakness has a minimal effect on wheelchair handling

245 activities specific to WR. Although the impact of finger function on physical performance in
246 WR has never investigated before, this observation is in line with what has been
247 recommended in wheelchair racing with finger function not deemed essential since athletes
248 typically contact the wheel with the hands as opposed to grasping the wheel or push rim
249 during propulsion.²³

250 As anticipated, arm impairment had a large bearing on ball handling activities specific
251 to WR, since it accounted for some of the explained variance observed in the majority of
252 technical measures examined. Both MAF and GAF were shown to score more goals, have
253 more possession, receive and make more passes, with a higher percentage of one-handed and
254 long passes and provide more assists than PAF. Since all of these parameters are associated
255 with scoring goals or the creation of goals, it seemed clear that proximal muscle weakness
256 prevented WR players from effectively performing offensive, technical duties. Although pass
257 success rate was actually shown to be higher in individuals with proximal muscle weakness
258 (PAF), this was likely related to the finding that these individuals attempted fewer one-
259 handed and long passes, which are expected to be more challenging.

260 Distal muscle function further facilitated offensive ball handling activities associated
261 with WR since more pick-ups were made and passes received and a higher percentage of one-
262 handed passes made were observed for players with GAF compared to MAF. The ability to
263 perform a one-handed pass is a particularly valuable asset for a WR player, as they are often
264 blocked or 'picked' by more than one opponent. In these situations offloading the ball to a
265 teammate can be difficult and the ability to raise the ball up with one hand to make a pass
266 clearly requires hand and finger function. GAF also performed a higher percentage of
267 defensive blocks, although this observation was more likely linked to the finding that these
268 players receive more passes and spend more time in possession and as a consequence
269 performed a lower percentage of offensive blocks. Therefore, arm function may not play a

270 critical role in defensive blocking, however the confounding factor could be the type of
271 opponent that players were blocking. Despite this, distal upper limb function did impact on
272 the performance of defensive WR activities since more turnovers, which were achieved by a
273 combination of steals and interceptions, were forced by GAF. This demonstrates the impact
274 that a combination of triceps, hand and finger function can have on both offensive and
275 defensive WR activities.

276

277 *Limitations*

278 The current study provided a novel insight into the contribution of trunk and arm
279 impairment on physical and technical aspects of WR performance during competition.
280 However, such an approach is accompanied by some limitations. Firstly only athletes with an
281 eligible WR classification can be investigated in a competitive environment, which limits the
282 combination of trunk and arm impairments. For instance, players with some trunk function
283 (0.5-1.5) cannot have good arm function (2.5-3.5) since they could exceed the overall
284 classification eligible for participation. Furthermore, combinations of arm and trunk scores
285 lead to the sports class of the athlete. The number of athletes per trunk and arm combination
286 was low and for some combinations, there were no participating athletes at all. As a
287 consequence, analysis of any differences in athletes within one class, but with different
288 combinations of arm and trunk scores could not be made. Similarly, it can also be difficult to
289 make direct inferences between the impact of impairment and WR performance during
290 competition due to the roles on court players adopt. Low-point players are thought to occupy
291 more defensive roles on court, where a key responsibility is to pick/block opponents, whereas
292 high-point players are often afforded offensive roles that involve ball handling and scoring
293 goals.^{3,6,24} Therefore, it remains unclear whether the players' role on court influences their
294 performance more than their specific impairment, as tactics and team line-ups may also

295 influence performance and as such the findings must be interpreted with caution. Despite this,
296 many of the findings currently observed under the constraints of competition complement
297 what has been observed during standardised field testing.⁸

298

299 **Practical Applications**

- 300 • Scientific research during competition can play an important role in understanding the
301 impact of impairment on performance, since players are likely to demonstrate
302 maximal effort under these conditions. Subsequently, data on performance collected
303 in a high-level competition are needed to support the development of evidence-based
304 classification systems in Paralympic sports.
- 305 • To understand more about the specific contribution of arm impairment, future
306 research at low-point WR tournaments would be advisable, where the majority of
307 players have NT, meaning the impact of arm impairment on performance can be
308 determined under more controlled conditions.
- 309 • In addition to impairment, players roles on court (defensive/offensive) can also
310 influence activity profiles, meaning that future research using standardised field tests
311 would further our understanding of the effect of impairment on performance by
312 minimising the influence of potential confounding factors.
- 313 • Coaches who wish to adopt a passing style of play may benefit from selecting a line-
314 up with players of superior arm function, whereas those who wish to minimise the
315 number of passes from offensive situations may wish to recruit players with superior
316 trunk function.

317

318 **Conclusions**

319 The current study has revealed that during competition, both trunk and arm
320 impairment impact upon physical and technical measures of performance specific to WR.
321 Trunk impairment was shown to mainly impact upon technical measures that are associated
322 with offensive roles, whereas arm impairment was shown to affect all physical measures and
323 both offensive and defensive aspects of technical performance. Active finger function (GAF)
324 had little bearing on WR mobility performance, yet did facilitate the performance of a small
325 number of technical skills vital to WR performance.

326

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332

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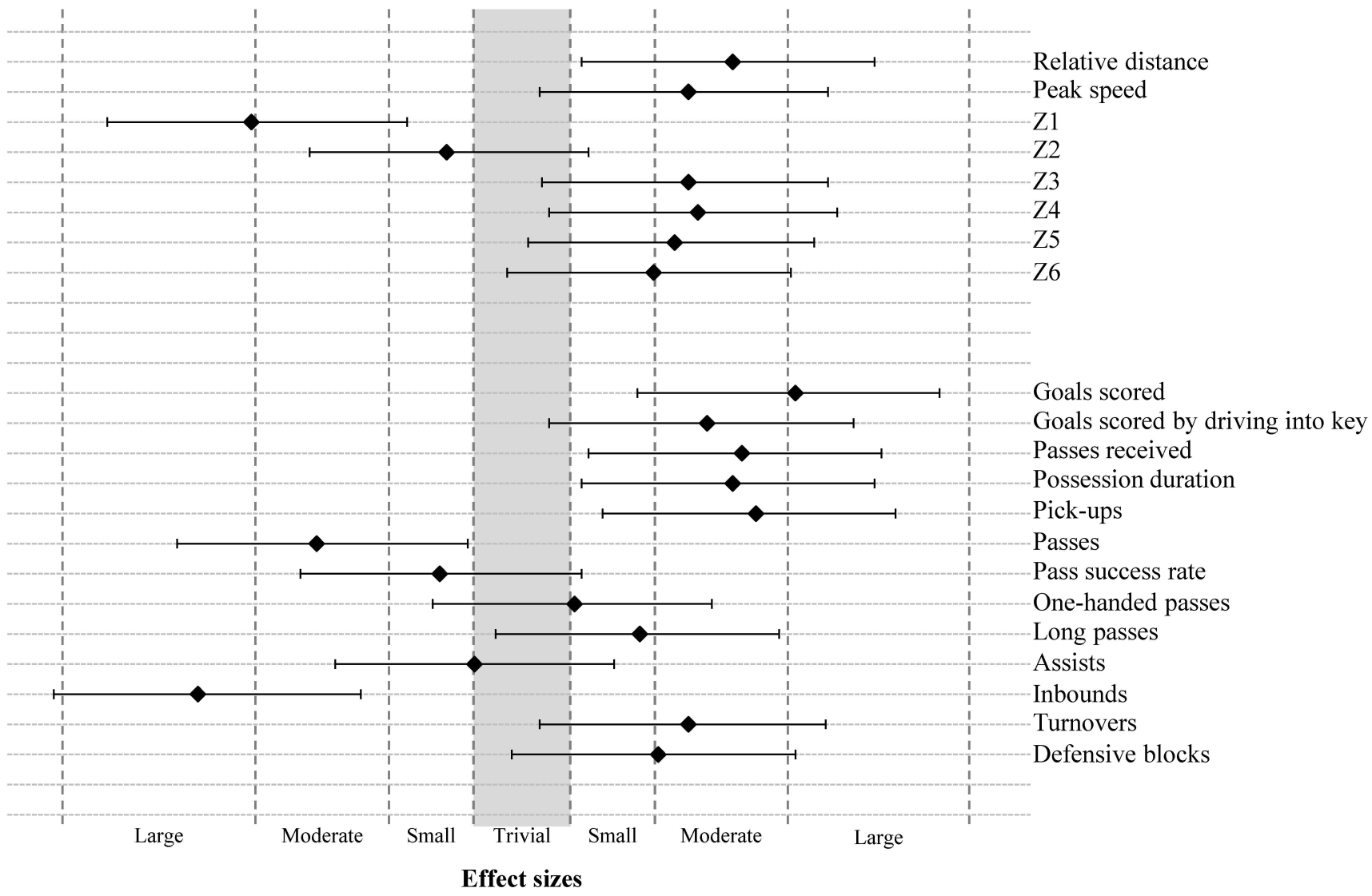
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406 **Figure Legends**

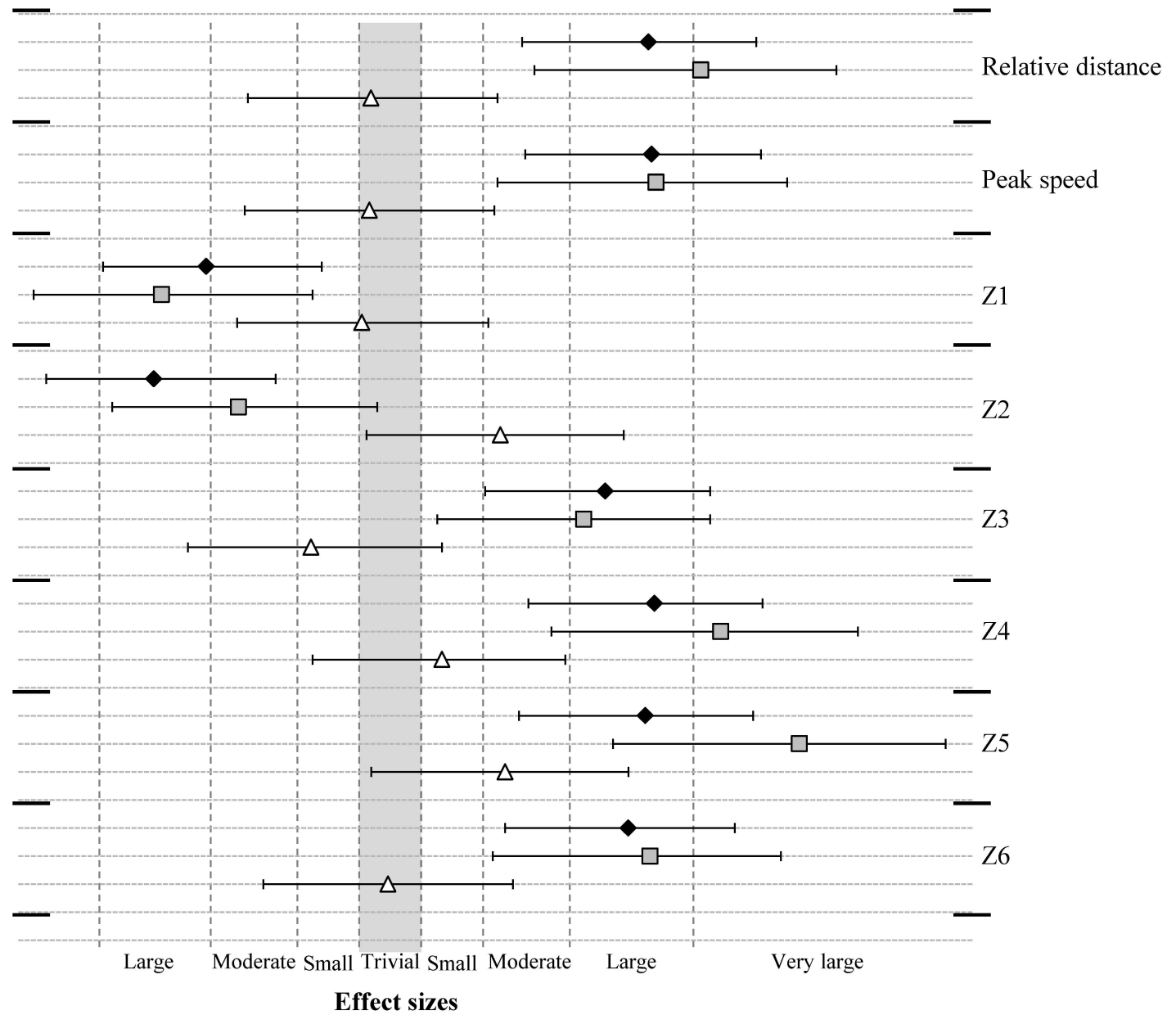
407 **Figure 1** – Effect sizes (\pm 90% CI) between trunk impairment groups for all physical and
408 technical measures of performance. A positive effect demonstrates that T scored higher for
409 that variable than NT.

410 **Figure 2** – Effect sizes (\pm 90% CI) between arm impairment groups for all physical measures
411 of performance. A positive effect represents a higher score for the more functional arm
412 impairment.

413 **Figure 3** – Effect sizes (\pm 90% CI) between arm impairment groups for all technical
414 measures of performance. A positive effect represents a higher score for the more functional
415 arm impairment.



◆ Poor v Mod ◻ Poor v Good △ Mod v Good



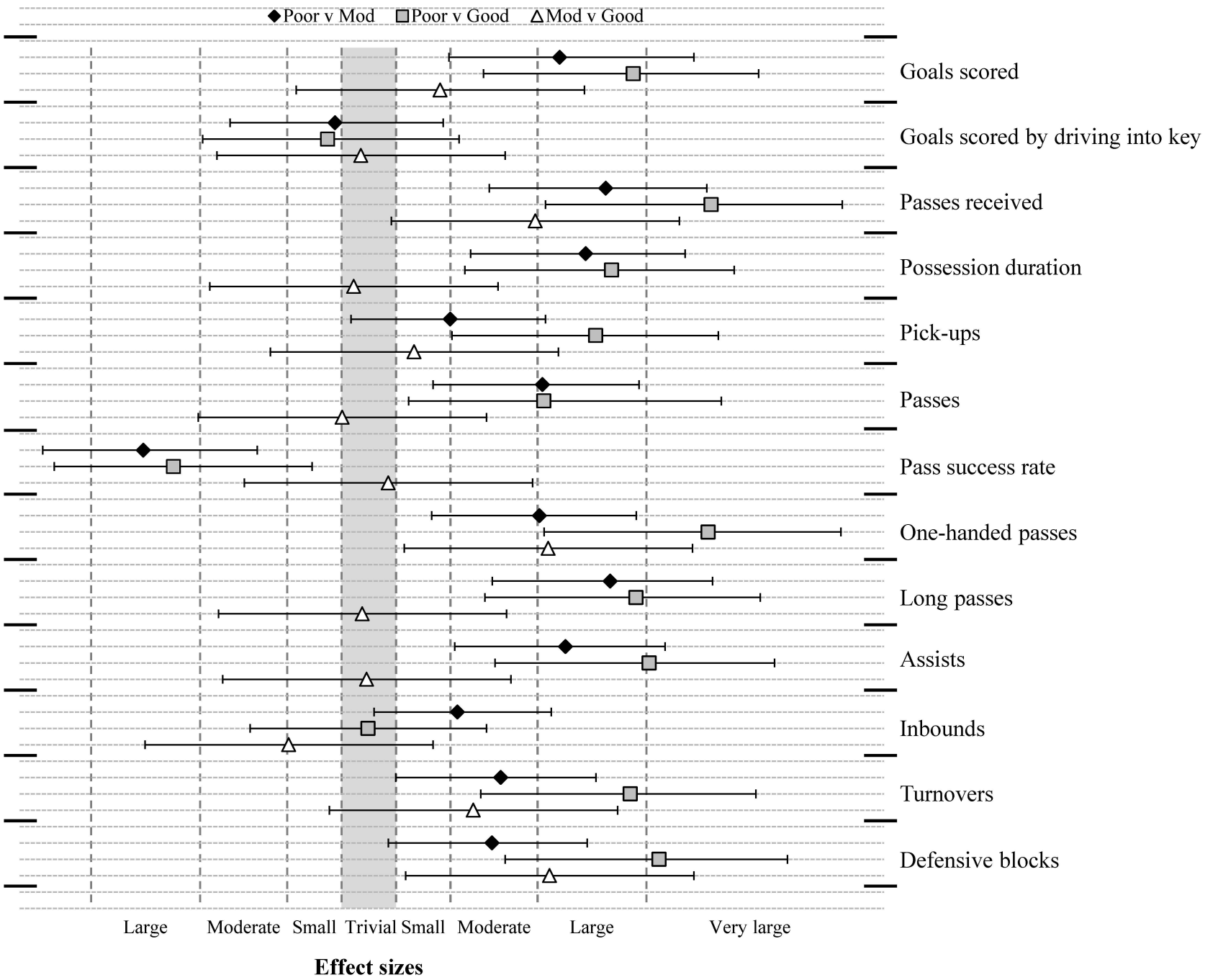


Table 1 – Combination of trunk and arm impairments from the current cohort of participants.

Arm score	Trunk score				Total (n)
	0	0.5	1.0	1.5	
0.5	4	0	1	0	5
1.0	3	1	0	0	4
1.5	0	2	0	1	3
2.0	8	3	1	1	13
2.5	2	3	0	NE	5
3.0	1	0	NE	NE	1
3.5	0	NE	NE	NE	0
Total (n)	18	9	2	2	31

NE = combination would have resulted in a classification score deemed ‘not eligible’ for WR

Table 2 – Speed zones used to quantify exercise intensity during match-play

Zone	Intensity	Speed threshold (m·s⁻¹)
Z1	Very low	< 0.50
Z2	Low	0.50 – 1.49
Z3	Moderate	1.50 – 2.49
Z4	High	2.50 – 2.99
Z5	Very high	3.00 – 3.49
Z6	Maximal	≥ 3.50

Table 3 – Description of the technical activities used to analyse performance

Activity	Type	Description
Goals		
Goals scored	n	Total number of goals scored
Driving into key	%	Goals scored by carrying the ball into the key
Received pass in key	%	Goals scored by receiving a pass whilst in the key
Catching		
Passes received	n	Number of passes received that were deemed ‘catchable’
Catch success rate	%	Passes successfully caught
Possession duration	\bar{x}	Time spent in possession of the ball
Pick-ups	n	Number of loose balls recovered
Passing		
Passes	n	Total number of passes attempted by a player
Pass success rate	%	Passes that reached their target, regardless of being caught
One-handed passes	%	Passes attempted with one hand
Long passes	%	Passes played over or past an opponent
Assists	n	Pass directly preceding a goal scored
Inbounds	n	Pass made to restart the game from goal- or side-line
Defending		
Turnovers	n	Forcing a mistake from opponents i.e. steal/interception
Blocks	n	Number of hits and picks made on an opponent’s chair
Defensive blocks	%	Blocks that were made when team were not in possession

n = frequency; % = percentage; \bar{x} = mean

Table 4 – The explained variance in performance from the multiple linear regression models and the mean (\pm SD) for the performance variables according to athlete’s trunk and arm group

Physical variables	Explained variance (%)		Trunk Group		Arm group		
	Trunk	Arms	NT	T	POOR	MOD	GOOD
Relative distance (m·min ⁻¹)	16.0*	33.6**	73.7 (5.9)	80.2 (8.4)	70.0 (5.9)	80.7 (6.7)	80.1 (1.7)
Peak speed (m·s ⁻¹)	10.6	30.8**	3.82 (0.34)	4.10 (0.44)	3.61 (0.30)	4.16 (0.34)	4.12 (0.28)
Relative time in Z1 (%)	23.5**	26.4*	16.1 (2.9)	12.4 (3.6)	17.1 (3.5)	13.1 (3.3)	12.6 (1.8)
Relative time in Z2 (%)	-	16.9**	52.6 (2.9)	51.5 (4.4)	54.7 (3.4)	49.9 (2.9)	51.8 (1.7)
Relative time in Z3 (%)	11.1	16.7**	25.9 (3.1)	28.9 (5.2)	24.2 (3.1)	29.6 (4.4)	27.7 (1.8)
Relative time in Z4 (%)	10.4	42.0**	4.0 (1.3)	5.0 (1.3)	3.2 (1.2)	5.1 (1.0)	5.4 (0.4)
Relative time in Z5 (%)	-	47.0**	1.2 (0.7)	1.7 (0.8)	0.7 (0.6)	1.7 (0.6)	2.1 (0.3)
Relative time in Z6 (%)	-	30.3**	0.3 (0.3)	0.5 (0.4)	0.1 (0.2)	0.5 (0.3)	0.5 (0.3)
Technical variables							
Goals scored (n/game)	24.2**	36.3**	3.8 (3.4)	8.8 (5.1)	2.3 (3.9)	7.5 (3.9)	9.6 (3.9)
Goals scored by driving into key (%)	14.9	-	69.6 (21.7)	84.2 (13.1)	79.9 (23.1)	75.4 (20.5)	74.9 (12.0)
Passes received (n/game)	16.3*	53.3**	11.6 (9.1)	20.5 (9.6)	6.8 (8.0)	18.3 (5.7)	26.0 (8.0)
Catch success rate (%)	-	-	96.2 (7.9)	97.0 (3.5)	95.6 (9.8)	97.1 (2.5)	97.2 (2.8)
Possession duration (s)	16.2*	29.1**	4.3 (2.0)	6.1 (2.1)	3.4 (1.8)	6.2 (1.9)	6.1 (1.0)
Pick-ups (n/game)	21.6**	13.1*	0.4 (0.5)	1.1 (0.9)	0.4 (0.5)	0.8 (1.0)	1.1 (0.4)
Passes (n/game)	18.0*	17.0*	17.9 (10.9)	10.0 (5.9)	8.4 (6.2)	19.0 (10.4)	17.4 (9.1)
Pass success rate (%)	-	20.8**	95.3 (3.6)	93.7 (5.8)	97.8 (3.3)	92.4 (4.1)	93.1 (4.9)
One-handed passes (%)	-	45.3**	18.7 (23.2)	24.4 (24.5)	5.8 (8.5)	22.1 (16.8)	49.7 (30.5)
Long passes (%)	-	33.5**	18.5 (16.9)	27.7 (18.7)	7.5 (13.6)	31.9 (15.0)	31.6 (11.0)
Assists (n/game)	-	27.1**	5.3 (4.0)	4.6 (2.9)	2.4 (2.1)	6.6 (3.8)	6.7 (2.5)
Inbounds (n/game)	33.0**	-	10.8 (9.5)	0.7 (0.9)	4.3 (6.2)	9.7 (10.2)	4.4 (9.4)
Turnovers (n/game)	10.5	30.4**	1.1 (1.1)	2.3 (2.2)	0.6 (0.8)	1.8 (1.6)	3.2 (2.2)
Blocks (n/game)	-	-	17.2 (3.5)	17.8 (3.6)	19.5 (2.6)	15.2 (3.1)	18.0 (3.2)
Defensive blocks (%)	-	38.4**	68.9 (10.7)	75.8 (12.7)	64.2 (10.9)	73.1 (9.4)	84.2 (6.7)

Key: - not entered into the regression model; significant difference from the Kruskal-Wallis test at 0.05* and 0.01** level.