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Using inertial measurement units to quantify shoulder elevation after reverse total shoulder arthroplasty: a pilot study comparing goniometric measures captured clinically to inertial measures captured 'in-the-wild'

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Using inertial measurement units to quantify shoulder elevation after reverse total shoulder arthroplasty: a pilot study comparing goniometric measures captured clinically to inertial measures captured 'in-the-wild'

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47 **Abstract**

48 **Background:** *Reverse total shoulder arthroplasty (rTSA) is utilized for a variety of*
49 *indications, but most commonly for patients with rotator cuff arthropathy. This procedure*
50 *reduces pain, improves satisfaction, and increases clinically measured range of motion*
51 *(ROM). However, traditional clinical ROM measurements captured via goniometer may*
52 *not accurately represent ‘real-world’ utilization of ROM. In contrast, inertial*
53 *measurement units (IMUs) are useful for establishing ROM outside the clinical setting.*
54 *We sought to measure ‘real-world’ ROM after rTSA using IMUs.*

55 **Methods:** *A previously validated IMU-based method for continuously capturing shoulder*
56 *elevation was used to assess 10 individuals receiving rTSA (82±5 years) and compared to*
57 *a previously captured 10 healthy individuals (4M, 69±20 years) without shoulder*
58 *dysfunction. Control subject data was previously collected over 1-week of continuous*
59 *use. Patients undergoing rTSA donned sensors for 1-week pre-rTSA, 6-weeks at 3-months*
60 *post-rTSA following clearance to perform active-independent ROM, and 1-week at 1- &*
61 *2-years post-rTSA. Shoulder elevation was computed continuously each day. Daily*
62 *continuous elevation was broken into 5° angle ‘bins’ (e.g. 0-5°, 5-10°, etc.) and*
63 *converted to percentage of the total day. IMU-based outcome measures were ROM*
64 *binned percent (as described previously) and maximum/average elevation each week.*
65 *Clinical goniometric ROM and patient reported outcome measures (PROMs) were also*
66 *captured.*

67 **Results:** *No differences existed between patient and healthy control demographics. While*
68 *patients showed improvement in ASES score, pain score, and goniometric ROM, IMU-*
69 *based average and maximum elevation were equal between control subjects and patients*

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70 *both pre- and post-rTSA. The percent of time spent above 90° was equal between cohorts*
71 *pre-rTSA, rose significantly at 3 months post-rTSA, and returned to preop levels*
72 *thereafter.*

73 **Discussion:** *Although pain, satisfaction, and ROM measured clinically may improve*
74 *following rTSA, real-world utilization of improved ROM was not seen herein.*
75 *Improvements during the acute rehabilitation phase may be transient, indicating longer*
76 *or more specific rehabilitation protocols are necessary to see chronic improvements in*
77 *post-rTSA movement patterns.*

78 **Level of Evidence:** Prospective Prognosis Study-Defined Level 2

79 **Keywords:** Arthroplasty, Shoulder, Inertial Measurement Unit, Rehabilitation, Range of
80 Motion, IMU, Wearable

81 **Introduction**

82 Reverse total shoulder arthroplasty (rTSA) is indicated for many shoulder
83 pathologies, most commonly rotator cuff arthropathy. rTSA is typically utilized after
84 non-operative treatments have failed to provide adequate relief. Studies have shown
85 rTSA has high success improving pain, satisfaction, and clinical range of motion (ROM)
86 ^{1,5,8,15}. However, pain and satisfaction are largely subjective whereas ROM is objective
87 and captured readily in clinical settings using several methods (e.g. goniometry).
88 Unfortunately, clinical ROM measures may not accurately represent patient movement
89 capabilities outside those captured in clinic/laboratory environments. As such, it is
90 unknown if patients utilize the entirety of clinically measured ROM improvements in the
91 ‘real world.’

92 Inertial measurement units (IMUs) provide a method for capturing shoulder ROM
93 outside well-controlled clinic/laboratory environments. IMUs are wearable,
94 electromechanical devices that capture linear acceleration, angular velocity, and magnetic
95 field strength via accelerometers, gyroscopes, and magnetometers, respectively. This
96 information can quantify IMU orientation in 3D ^{10,13,20}. Utilizing the relative motion
97 between multiple IMUs rigidly affixed to distinct bony segments subsequently allows
98 computation of joint angles (e.g. shoulder elevation) ^{2,7,12}. This approach has been
99 utilized to capture sagittal shoulder kinematics (i.e. elevation). Yet, the vast majority of
100 studies have attempted to improve measurement precision in well-controlled
101 environments while subjects performed prescribed movements ^{6,18,19}. In contrast, we
102 previously developed, validated, and deployed an IMU-based method for capturing long-
103 duration, ‘real-world’ shoulder elevation including from healthy elderly individuals and

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104 individuals before/after total shoulder arthroplasty (TSA) ^{3,4}. Additionally, Van de Kleut
105 et al. recently published similar efforts quantifying shoulder elevation via IMUs pre-/post
106 rTSA ²¹. While they did find changes in shoulder kinematics following rTSA, they only
107 captured 1-day prior to surgery and 1-day at 3/12 months post-rTSA. Their efforts do
108 indeed represent a leap forward, however 1-days' data may over- or under-estimate
109 patient performance. To our knowledge, no work exists using IMUs to evaluate patient
110 ROM after rTSA for long durations (i.e. weeks).

111 Accordingly, our focus was conducting a pilot study to evaluate the feasibility of
112 prospectively quantifying continuous, long-duration shoulder elevation from individuals
113 before/after rTSA using a previously validated method ^{3,4}. Because humeral elevation
114 captured clinically remains reduced immediately following rTSA compared to healthy
115 individuals ¹¹, we hypothesize patients will have reduced elevation as measured by IMUs
116 compared to healthy subjects before and immediately after surgery. In contrast, because
117 long-term clinical improvement in ROM following rTSA has been shown clinically
118 ^{1,5,8,15}, we hypothesize patients will improve shoulder elevation as measured by IMUs
119 following surgery at longer term follow ups (i.e. 1- and 2-years post-rTSA).

120 **Materials and Methods**

121 The method of prospectively capturing shoulder ROM used in this pilot study via
122 IMUs was previously validated and is detailed in previous studies ^{3,4}. Briefly, IMUs
123 (APDM, Inc., Portland, OR) were affixed to two bony landmarks (Figure 1A: sternum -
124 xyphoid process, humerus - deltoid tuberosity). Daily temporal synchronization between
125 IMUs occurred via manufacturer implemented wireless local area network 'sync-packet'
126 clock comparison. Both IMU's data were converted to 3D vectors and the relative
127 orientation between IMUs was utilized to compute shoulder elevation each day (Figure
128 1B). Subjects followed a daily sensor-use workflow (Figure 2), wherein subjects awoke,
129 removed IMUs from charging docks, donned IMUs, and wore them for the duration of
130 the day. 3D acceleration data were continuously captured (>8 hours per day) and stored
131 locally (16GB MicroSD, up to 18 hours per day/60 days). Following daily capture,
132 sensors were doffed/re-docked facilitating overnight recharging. This occurred daily for
133 the study duration. IMUs were then returned to researchers for data download and
134 processing.

135 Although this was a feasibility pilot study, pre-study statistics ($\alpha=0.05$,
136 power=0.80) of historical maximum elevation comparing healthy subjects and patients
137 undergoing rTSA found minimum cohort sample size requirements of 9 subjects. Thus,
138 following IRB approval by the ethics review board, we were granted the ability to enroll
139 10 patients (1M, 82±5 years) undergoing rTSA. Under the same IRB approval, we were
140 granted the ability to enroll 10 healthy control subjects which have been described in
141 previous publications ^{3,4}. Briefly, healthy controls wore sensors for 1-week continuously,
142 similar to the pre-rTSA data capture for rTSA patients described below. We utilize those

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143 control subject results herein as a comparison point to our rTSA patient population.
144 Patients were enrolled from a single surgeon's consecutive clinical caseload (inclusion:
145 age>21, presentation for unilateral rTSA surgery from rotator cuff arthropathy (n=9) or
146 osteoarthritis with irreparable rotator cuff tear (n=1), no other neuromuscular or
147 musculoskeletal disease impacting upper extremities, no terminal illness with expected
148 death within 1-year of enrollment). All patients previously failed conservative treatments
149 including PT and/or injections. After obtaining consent, handedness was assessed for
150 each subject via the Edinburgh Handedness Inventory ¹⁶ and utilized for correlation
151 calculations. After handedness assessment, subjects underwent sensor-use tutorial (~30
152 minutes: charging dock plugs, charging sensors, sensor donning). Subjects were allowed
153 to ask questions throughout and were given a pictorial/text instruction guide with contact
154 information for post-tutorial questions.

155 Patients wore sensors on their impacted arm and sternum for one-week pre-rTSA
156 without clinical interventions offered (e.g. PT, injections). Pre-rTSA clinical ROM via
157 goniometry and patient reported outcome measures (PROMs) were collected by the
158 senior resident physician on the day of surgery. This was the same individual throughout
159 the entire study. Goniometry was completed with the patient in a seated posture
160 performing active ROM. Patients then underwent rTSA performed by the attending
161 surgeon via the deltopectoral approach and received a single design implant (Zimmer
162 Biomet, Inc., Trabecular Metal™ Reverse Shoulder System, Warsaw, IN). Patients were
163 discharged home with a motion-restricting sling and clinician-limited passive ROM
164 allowed until post-rTSA week six. Active-assisted ROM was allowed after 6 weeks (i.e.
165 post-rTSA weeks 6-12). Following clinician clearance for unrestricted active ROM and

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166 gentle strength exercises at three months post-rTSA, patients wore IMUs for six
167 consecutive weeks (i.e. post-rTSA 12-18). Clinical ROM and PROMs were re-captured at
168 the end of this 6-week period by the same senior resident physician. At 1- and 2-years
169 post-rTSA, 1-week IMU data captures were repeated alongside clinical goniometric
170 ROM measurement and PROMs.

171 Following return of IMU sensors, IMU data were retrospectively analyzed daily.
172 IMU-based elevation was divided into 0.5 second and 5° increments (e.g. 0-5°, etc.).
173 Average elevation within each 0.5 second time bin was quantified and the count within
174 the corresponding angle bin incremented. The total daily count in each angle bin was
175 converted to a percentage of the day spent within that angle bin. Additional IMU-based
176 ROM metrics were daily average and maximum elevation. Daily metrics were then
177 averaged within a week and weekly averages were averaged across subjects. Goniometric
178 ROM (active forward flexion and external rotation) and PROMs at the previously noted
179 time points were captured by the senior resident physician, including pain score,
180 American Shoulder and Elbow Surgeon (ASES) score, and Patient Reported Outcomes
181 Measurement Information System (PROMIS)-10 mental and physical component
182 summary (MCS and PCS)^{9,14}.

183 Although this study was a pilot investigation, statistical tests were conducted for
184 completeness to compare rTSA patient results to previously published healthy control
185 subjects. This included demographics, IMU-based ROM metrics, PROMs, and clinical
186 goniometric ROM. Specifically, statistical evaluations were two-tailed t-tests for
187 continuous variables, two-tailed t-tests of proportions for non-numeric categorical
188 variables, and two-tailed Mann-Whitney-U tests for numerical categorical variables.

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189 Correlations were also calculated comparing demographics, IMU ROM metrics, PROMs,
190 and goniometric ROM. Alpha level (α) was set at 0.05 for all t-tests and following a
191 Bonferroni correction to 0.0015 ($0.05/33=0.0015$) for correlations.

192 **Results**

193 *Subject Demographics, Goniometric ROM, PROMs*

194 All patients were well healed postoperatively with no complications or
195 reoperations needed. 10 patients were initially enrolled with 3 lost to follow up at 2-years
196 post-rTSA (n=1 deceased, n=2 failed communication). No significant differences were
197 noted between the 3 subjects lost to follow up and the remaining enrolled subjects or
198 healthy subjects for any variable including demographics, clinical measures, or IMU
199 measures. No significant demographic differences were noted between rTSA patients and
200 previously published control subjects (Table 1). Previously published healthy control
201 PROMs and clinical goniometric ROM were greater than pre-rTSA values (Table 2; *).
202 At the immediate post-rTSA follow-up, goniometric flexion improved beyond pre-rTSA
203 levels (Table 2; ‡) but both goniometric flexion and external rotation (ER) remained less
204 than historical controls. Goniometric flexion remained above pre-rTSA and equaled
205 historical control values for the remainder of the study, whereas ER persisted below
206 historical control levels. Like ER, PROMIS PCS was less than historical controls
207 throughout the entire study. PROMIS MCS was equal to historical controls during first
208 post-rTSA follow up but returned below thereafter. Pain improved immediately following
209 surgery and remained improved throughout. Finally, ASES initially improved post-rTSA
210 but did not achieve historical control levels until 1-year postop and subsequently returned
211 below control levels at 2-year post-rTSA.

212 *IMU Outcome Measures*

213 IMU average elevation (Figure 3: historical controls, patient pre, and patient post
214 as solid, striped, and dotted bars, respectively) was equal between patients and historical

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215 controls at all times ($p>0.05$). Similarly, IMU maximum elevation (Figure 4: displayed
216 similarly) was always equal between patients and historical controls ($p>0.05$).

217 Binned shoulder elevation in 15° bins under 90° (e.g. $0-15^\circ$, etc.) is shown in
218 Figure 5A. Pre-rTSA, no statistical difference was noted between patients and historical
219 controls ($p=0.76$), spending 94.6% and 96.2% of their time below 90° each day,
220 respectively. More specifically, pre-rTSA patients spent 41.1% between $0-30^\circ$, 38.3%
221 between $30-60^\circ$, and 15.2% between $60-90^\circ$. Historical controls spent 38.9%, 44.1%, and
222 13.2% in the same ranges. These values oscillated during postop follow-ups, however no
223 significant differences were noted.

224 Binned elevation percent above 90° is displayed in 45° increments in Figure 5B.
225 Similar to $<90^\circ$, historical controls (3.8%) and patients pre-rTSA (5.4%) showed no
226 statistically significant differences for elevations above 90° ($p=0.45$). Following surgery,
227 patients increased the amount each day spent above 90° until post-rTSA week 3 (10.9%).
228 However, this value decreased thereafter returning to pre-rTSA levels (6.0%) at the end
229 of acute rehabilitation. Patient daily elevation percentage above 90° at 1-year (8.5%) and
230 2-years (7.7%) post-rTSA remained elevated above both preoperative and historical
231 control subject levels, however not at a statistically significant level ($p>0.40$).

232 Correlations are shown in Table 3. Following a Bonferroni correction, no
233 statistically significant correlations were found.

234 **Discussion**

235 Shoulder ROM measurements before and after surgical intervention are typically
236 recorded in well-controlled environments like the clinic or laboratory. While capturing
237 data in these environments has advantages (e.g. convenient, easy), the measures likely do
238 not accurately describe shoulder function during ADLs in patient’s ‘real world’ settings.
239 To ameliorate these limitations, we deployed a previously validated method to establish
240 shoulder elevation via IMUs in patients pre-/post-rTSA in their own environments and
241 compared the results to previously published healthy individuals ³. We saw
242 improvements in some clinical metrics after surgery (e.g. ASES, pain scores, and
243 goniometric flexion), yet most were still not equal to historical healthy controls.
244 Clinically, our patients did not see external rotation improvement after rTSA. These
245 results are similar to other rTSA studies, which may indicate our patients were typical
246 and well matched with those presented in the literature ^{1,8,11,15}. However, befitting a pilot
247 study our sample size was relatively small (n=10). In future investigations, increasing
248 subject quantity will improve the statistical strength of that sentiment.

249 Interestingly, despite pre-op rTSA patients having significantly lower goniometric
250 maximum ROM, IMU-based ROM (average, maximum, and movement percentage) pre-
251 rTSA was no different than controls. In other words, while pre-rTSA ROM deficits are
252 noted clinically, patients use their shoulder ROM equal to healthy counterparts in self-
253 selected settings as assessed using this IMU method. For average elevation, this likely
254 means that the vast majority of typical ADLs are completed at lower elevations (i.e. arm
255 elevated between waist and chest height) which subjects could do regardless of surgical
256 status. Prior investigations have found this to be true with the majority of ADLs requiring

257 less than 100° (e.g. washing face, eating/drinking, toileting) with notable exceptions of
258 combing one's hair and reaching behind one's own head¹⁷. This finding might also imply
259 normal elderly individuals without shoulder pathology do not move their arms more
260 effectively than pre-rTSA patients in the real world, despite the capacity to do so.
261 However, several notable comorbidities in a number of patients were discovered
262 including anecdotal use of ambulatory assistive devices (e.g. walkers, canes). The use of
263 these devices could greatly influence how patients utilize their upper extremities for a
264 great deal of time. For example, several individuals indicated they utilized walkers in a
265 stooped posture (we estimate the torso would flex ~15-20°, humeri would elevate ~75-
266 90°) (Figure 6). Although this is indicative of relatively high humeral elevations,
267 elevations in this posture are grossly different than humeral elevations with an upright
268 torso as is often seen in healthy individuals. Using the described method, we are currently
269 incapable of differentiating 90° elevation in an upright posture from 90° elevation while
270 stooped over, using an assistive device. To ascertain these differences, future studies
271 should include torso kinematics to complete the picture of upper extremity function
272 before and after rTSA.

273 Despite these unanticipated findings, the validated IMU-based ROM
274 measurement method used herein provides a richer image of patient function. While it is
275 clear from this study and others that patients are incapable of high active forward flexion
276 measured goniometrically, they appear to be capable of achieving high thoracohumeral
277 angles in some manner (i.e. upright torso or forward flexed torso using assistive devices)
278 and in some situations before surgery as measured outside of the clinic via IMUs. As
279 described herein, achieving high thoracohumeral angles is possible in a number of

280 different ways outside the clinic (e.g. passive ROM in supine at PT, use of a walker in
281 bent trunk posture, etc.). However, in the present study we did not evaluate how this high
282 humeral elevation occurred. Despite this inability, it is clear that goniometric clinical
283 measures do not show the entire performance picture whereas IMU-based ROM
284 measures are capable of providing richer data.

285 Additionally, it could be argued that monitoring humeral elevation may not be the
286 best metric to measure if the question is about completion of upper extremity ADLs. For
287 example, reaching requires placing the hand in the appropriate position in space for the
288 task. This typically requires a combination of all three planes of motion (sagittal, frontal,
289 and transverse) which may not be encapsulated by humeral elevation alone. Moreover,
290 many upper extremity ADLs can be completed with $<100^\circ$ humeral elevation. Thus,
291 future investigations should attempt capturing a wider range of kinematic variables. In
292 addition and as noted previously, patients may have completed specific ROM in a variety
293 of ways that required different effort levels with varying levels of pain. In the present
294 study, we have not differentiated which motions or ROM required greater effort or
295 caused increased pain. Future studies should evaluate these features.

296 Following surgery, rTSA patient IMU-based average and maximum ROM
297 remained equal to historical controls during all postoperative weeks. And, while there
298 were temporary differences in ROM utilization between patients and historical controls
299 (increased % $> 90^\circ$ elevation during post-rTSA week three), these differences
300 disappeared by the end of the rehabilitation period and persisted at 1- and 2-years post-
301 rTSA. These results do not support our hypothesis that rTSA patients would have
302 increased shoulder ROM utilization in the home environment postoperatively compared

303 to preoperative levels. Perhaps more critically, despite the advantage of capturing real-
304 world ROM via IMUs, these results indicate that average elevation, maximum elevation,
305 and the percent of the day in particular positions as established by IMUs are insufficient
306 for describing pre- or post-rTSA shoulder function. Future researchers should investigate
307 capturing other IMU-based ROM metrics including quantifying all three kinematic planes
308 of motion.

309 **Limitations**

310 Despite advantages IMU-based ROM measures offer, there are inherent
311 limitations in the efforts discussed. As this was a pilot investigation, our sample size was
312 small (n=10 patients). Moreover, three subjects were lost to at 2-year follow up (n=7 final
313 subjects). Accordingly, where we noted no significant differences in IMU-based
314 kinematic differences or results that may not align with previous publications, it is likely
315 with additional patients we will have stronger statistical surety of the results herein. In
316 addition, this study only investigated one rTSA implant make/model. As such, the results
317 herein may not apply to other device manufacturers or types. Additionally, we only
318 captured one IMU-based ROM measure at specific time points (i.e. one week continuous
319 pre-rTSA, 6 weeks continuously at 3 months post-rTSA, and 1-week at 1- and 2-years
320 post-rTSA). It is possible that other IMU-based ROM measures (e.g. differentiate
321 between sagittal/frontal/transverse planes) or other time periods would yield different
322 results. Other biomechanical limitations include not measuring the contralateral arm or
323 other body segments. It is also possible that patients altered their approach for
324 accomplishing ADL (e.g. increased trunk flexion, use of contralateral arm) however
325 conclusions about this in the present study are unknown. In addition, we confirmed the

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326 work of many other studies on rTSA that show decreased external rotation after surgery
327 measured goniometrically, but it was not feasible to accurately measure external rotation
328 with the current IMU-based approach. Future experiments should incorporate monitoring
329 additional segments and/or the contralateral limb. Additionally, there may be non-
330 kinematic variables that might show more significant improvement post-rTSA (e.g.
331 strength). Lastly, the tasks that patients complete will have a great influence on how they
332 utilize their upper extremities. We only have anecdotal evidence of assistive device
333 utilization and do not know what hobbies and/or occupations each subject routinely
334 completed. Capturing this data in future studies would illuminate potential causative
335 factors for specific kinematic measure results. Future studies should incorporate these
336 metrics.

337 **Conclusion**

338 This study shows that ROM data captured in well-controlled environments like
339 the clinic or laboratory are not representative of what patients actually do with their
340 shoulders in their real-world environment. We deployed a validated IMU-based method
341 for capturing shoulder elevation continuously in patients' home environments, outside of
342 controlled clinic or laboratory environments. The cohort captured in this body of work
343 had similar post-op survey outcomes, clinically measured ROM, and pain relief when
344 compared to other rTSA studies. However, we did not see improved use of the arm after
345 surgery as assessed by 'real-world' IMU-based ROM metrics. This could indicate that
346 while rTSA does improve several clinic-based measures like pain, satisfaction, and
347 goniometric ROM, it does not have a similar impact on ROM utilization during ADL
348 outside of the clinic. However, we are currently unable to ascertain the specific strategy a
349 particular subject used to achieve a particular ROM. Thus, a movement that appears
350 similar before and after surgery may in fact have similar elevation ROM, but vastly
351 different effort levels required, pain experienced, plane of elevation, and/or compensatory
352 strategy. Additionally, these results may indicate that we should align our postoperative
353 ROM goals not with what is possible clinically, but with what patients require to regain
354 function in their home environment. Additionally, we noted several transient
355 improvements in movement patterns during the acute post-rTSA time period with
356 reductions in function chronically. As such, future work should endeavor to create
357 rehabilitation strategies that not only improve acute movement patterns but also chronic
358 movement capabilities following rTSA.

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440 **Figure Legends**

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Figure 1.	Example instrumentation including A) IMU donning locations on the sternum and humerus ^{4, 5} and B) angle computation between gravity and acceleration data.
Figure 2.	Data processing workflow including 1) raw accelerometer signal input, 2) processing accelerometer signals (bony segment differentiation, low pass filtration, offsetting anatomical/sensor misalignment, and distal to proximal coordinate transformation), 3) continuous shoulder elevation calculation, 4) daily metric calculation (average, maximum bin > 10x, maximum elevation, binned movement rate, binned percentage), 5) weekly metric averages, and 6) total subject averages.
Figure 3.	IMU-based average shoulder elevation for controls (solid), patients pre-rTSA (striped), and patients post-rTSA (dotted).
Figure 4.	IMU-based maximum shoulder elevation for controls (solid), patients pre-rTSA (striped), and patients post-rTSA (dotted).
Figure 5.	Movement percentage A) less than 90° binned in 15° increments and B) more than 90° binned in 45° increments.
Figure 6.	Examples of expected humeral elevation (as was typical in healthy controls) and unexpected humeral elevations (as was seen in comorbid patients using assistive devices).

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444 **Table Legends**
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Table 1.	Subject demographics and associated p-values for statistical comparisons between control subjects and patients undergoing rTSA.
Table 2.	Patient reported outcome measures (PROMs) and clinical goniometric ROM. Statistical significance ($p < 0.05$) between control/patient values and between pre-/post-rTSA values are indicated by asterisks (*) and by double-cross (‡), respectively. Pain is listed as median \pm MAD; PROMIS P, PROMIS M, and ASES, and clinical ROM are listed as mean \pm SD.
Table 3.	Patient Spearman (discrete variables) and Pearson (continuous variables) correlations including comparisons between IMU-based metrics, clinical ROM, and PROMs. Data are displayed as correlation coefficient and p-values.

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