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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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

120 Materials and Methods

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

192 **Results**

193 Subject Demographics, Goniometric ROM, PROMs

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

212 IMU Outcome Measures

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

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°, 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°, 38.3%
221	between 30-60°, and 15.2% between 60-90°. 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

Shoulder ROM measurements before and after surgical intervention are typically 235 recorded in well-controlled environments like the clinic or laboratory. While capturing 236 data in these environments has advantages (e.g. convenient, easy), the measures likely do 237 not accurately describe shoulder function during ADLs in patient's 'real world' settings. 238 To ameliorate these limitations, we deployed a previously validated method to establish 239 shoulder elevation via IMUs in patients pre-/post-rTSA in their own environments and 240 compared the results to previously published healthy individuals³. We saw 241 242 improvements in some clinical metrics after surgery (e.g. ASES, pain scores, and goniometric flexion), yet most were still not equal to historical healthy controls. 243 Clinically, our patients did not see external rotation improvement after rTSA. These 244 results are similar to other rTSA studies, which may indicate our patients were typical 245 and well matched with those presented in the literature ^{1,8,11,15}. However, befitting a pilot 246 study our sample size was relatively small (n=10). In future investigations, increasing 247 subject quantity will improve the statistical strength of that sentiment. 248

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

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 head ¹⁷ . 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.

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

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

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

309 Limitations

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

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

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

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440 Figure Legends

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).

Table Legends

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.