



# Enhancing Shoulder External Rotator Electromyography Activity During Sitting External Rotation Exercise: The Impact of Biofeedback Training

Il-young Yu<sup>1</sup>, PT, PhD, Min-joo Ko<sup>2</sup>, PT, PhD, Jae-seop Oh<sup>2</sup>, PT, PhD

<sup>1</sup>Department of Rehabilitation Center, DangDang Korean Medicine Hospital, Changwon, <sup>2</sup>Department of Physical Therapy, College of Healthcare Medical Science and Engineering, Inje University, Gimhae, Korea

## Article Info

Received August 1, 2023

Revised August 11, 2023

Accepted August 12, 2023

## Corresponding Author

Jae-seop Oh

E-mail: ysrehab@inje.ac.kr

<https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1907-0423>

## Key Words

Biofeedback  
Humeral head  
Rotator cuff  
Shoulder joint

**Background:** The external rotation (ER) exercise is performed at a 90° abduction of the shoulder joint is an effective to strengthen the infraspinatus. However, failure of the humeral head to control axial rotation during exercise can be increased the posterior deltoid over activity. Biofeedback training is an effective method of promoting motor learning and control it could look forward to activate the infraspinatus selectively by controlling the humeral head during exercise.

**Objects:** The aim of this study was investigated that whether biofeedback for axial rotation was effective to activate selectively the infraspinatus during ER exercise.

**Methods:** The 15 healthy males participated, and all subjects performed both ER exercise in a sitting position with shoulder abducted 90° under conditions with and without axial rotation biofeedback. Exercise was performed in a range of 90° ER, divided into three phases: concentric, isometric, and eccentric. The infraspinatus and posterior deltoid muscle activity were observed using surface electromyography.

**Results:** Both infraspinatus activity ( $p < 0.01$ ) and infraspinatus to posterior deltoid activity ratio ( $p = 0.01$ ) were significantly higher with biofeedback however, posterior deltoid activity was significantly lower with biofeedback ( $p = 0.01$ ). The infraspinatus muscle activity and muscle activity ratio were the highest in the isometric contraction type, and there were significant differences for all contraction types ( $p < 0.05$ ). Whereas, the posterior deltoid activity was the lowest in the isometric contraction type, and showed a significant difference between isometric and other two contraction types ( $p < 0.05$ ), but no significant different between concentric and eccentric contraction.

**Conclusion:** Our results indicate that the axial rotation biofeedback during sitting ER exercise might be effective method to activating selective infraspinatus muscle and recommended to enhance the dynamic stability of the shoulder joint.

## INTRODUCTION

The stability of the shoulder joint is highly dependent on dynamic components, which is provided by the concavity compression mechanism through co-activation of the rotator cuff (RC) [1,2]. Among, the infraspinatus muscle is known to play a particularly important role in providing the primary external rotation (ER) torque and dynamic stability in the shoulder joint [3]. This muscle allows the inferior gliding of humeral head and provides the ability to control the anteroposterior translation of the humeral head and compressive forces through co-activation with the other RC [4,5].

Infraspinatus muscle weakness causes excessive posterior deltoid muscle activity relative to infraspinatus muscle activity [6-8], because of fiber orientation, the posterior deltoid might be activated during ER movement [9]. As a result, unwanted anterior translation of the humeral head during shoulder ER can result in internal or subacromial impingement [7,8]. In particular, repeated overhead throwing can increase the risk of shoulder injuries due to increasing contact pressure via distractive forces [10-12]. Therefore, selective activation of the infraspinatus muscle is important for rehabilitation [13,14].

Previous studies have suggested that efficient exercise methods for strengthening the infraspinatus muscle [13,15,16]



among them the standing external rotation exercise is performed at 90° shoulder joint abduction and reported as effective exercise for strengthening the infraspinatus muscle [15,16]. Performing ER exercise at 90° shoulder joint abduction may provide a functional advantage because it replicates daily and sport-specific upper extremity function, by representing the influence of lever arm length on isometric tension generation [14,17-19]. This exercise can increase joint stability by producing a central compression force on humeral head [20] via the deltoid muscle and RC. However, despite these advantages, the failure of the humeral head to control axial rotation in the glenoid cavity can be increased the posterior deltoid activity [21]. Therefore, motor control training is required to selectively activate the infraspinatus while performing the ER exercises.

Biofeedback training is an effective method for promoting motor learning and control, which improves normal movement by controlling involuntary muscle contractions and selectively contracting the appropriate muscles [22-24]. In a study of biofeedback training for selective muscle activation of the infraspinatus, Lim et al. [25] reported increases in infraspinatus activity when performing the side-lying external rotation (SER) exercise using electromyography (EMG) biofeedback. Yu et al. [26] recently reported that increased the infraspinatus muscle activity and muscle thickness during the prone external rotation with pressure biofeedback. Therefore, biofeedback training can affect selectively activate muscles and performing ER exercises with biofeedback training can be expected to control axial rotation of the humeral head.

However, to our knowledge, no study has investigated the effectiveness of biofeedback training for axial rotation control of ER in the shoulder joints. Therefore, the purpose of this study was investigated that whether biofeedback for axial rotation was effective to activate selectively the infraspinatus through differences in muscle activity between the infraspinatus and posterior deltoid, and the activity ratio of the infraspinatus to posterior deltoid muscle during ER exercise in 90° abduction of shoulder joint.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### 1. Participants

We used the G\*power software (ver. 3.1.2; Franz Faul, Kiel University) to estimate the necessary sample size, in a pilot study of six participants comparing infraspinatus muscle activ-

ity during ER exercise with and without biofeedback. A power analysis determined that at least four subjects were required to achieve a power of 0.95 with an effect size of 1.79 at a significance level of 0.05. In total, 15 healthy males (age:  $30.33 \pm 2.58$  years, height:  $175.79 \pm 3.82$  cm, weight:  $73.40 \pm 3.46$  kg) participated in this study. The inclusion criteria included absence of neck, shoulder, and upper extremity pain and ability to perform 90° shoulder abduction and 90° ER during exercise without pain. All participants provided informed consent, and the study was approved by the Inje University Ethics Committee for Human Investigation (IRB no. INJE-2018-09-010-001).

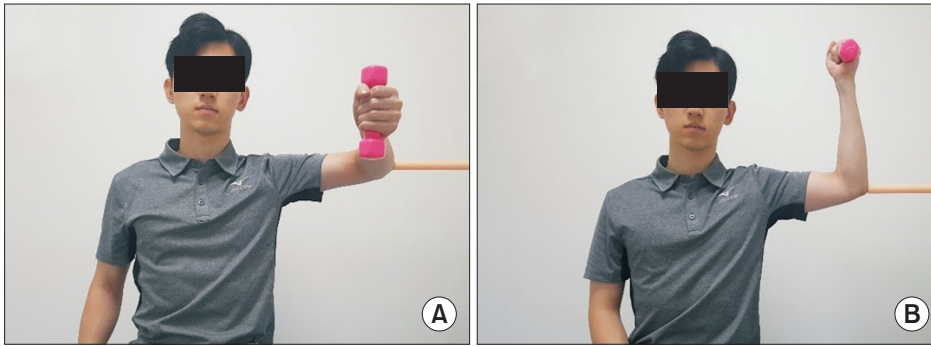
### 2. Surface Electromyography and Data Processing

A Trigno wireless system (Delsys, Inc.) was used to assess EMG signals. The system comprised a single EMG sensor ( $27 \times 37 \times 15$  mm) containing two patent-pending stabilizing references, with a 4-bar formation electrode ( $5 \times 10$  mm) at an inter-electrode distance of 20 mm; the contact material was pure silver (99.9%). The EMG signal was filtered with 20–450 Hz band pass filter. The obtained surface EMG data were converted into the root mean square (RMS) with a 125-ms interval using the EMG Works 4.0 software (Delsys, Inc.) [27].

Two surface electrode pairs were placed on the infraspinatus and posterior deltoid and then maximal voluntary isometric contraction (MVIC) was measured to normalize the surface EMG data, following the methods of Magee [28] and Kendall et al. [29]. Each contraction was held for 5 seconds with maximal effort against manual resistance. The mean EMG data of middle 3-second of three trials was used [15]. Subjects took a 2-minute break between trials to minimize muscle fatigue.

### 3. External Rotation Exercise With and Without Axial Rotation Biofeedback

To avoid the compensatory movements that occur in the pelvis or lower limbs when ER exercise is performed in the sitting position, ER exercise was performed in an upright sitting position with the shoulder abducted 90°, elbow flexed to 90°, and forearm in a neutral position. In our study, a stick was placed in the center of the olecranon process of the elbow to provide biofeedback for axial rotation during ER exercise. The exercise was performed at an ER range of 90° divided into three phases: concentric, isometric, and eccentric. Subjects adjusted their position to prevent the stick from falling out of the olecranon process during exercise (Figure 1), and conducted the exercises



**Figure 1.** Sitting external rotation exercise with axial rotation biofeedback. (A) Starting position and (B) ending position.

under supervision to prevent compensation. Subjects externally rotated the dominant arm through a range of  $90^\circ$  for 5 seconds with concentric contraction, and then sustained an isometric contraction for 5 seconds at the end of the range, before finally returning to the start position at  $0^\circ$  ER for 5 seconds with eccentric contraction. The time for each type of contraction was controlled using a metronome. The subjects performed exercises using a 1–2 kg dumbbells, unwanted compensatory movements of the scapula during exercise may affect the results of muscle activity therefore, low intensity of resistance relative was provided using 1–2 kg dumbbells to control these bias in our study. In particular, in eccentric contraction subjects were asked not to apply downward force with the arms to prevent internal rotation by concentric contraction of the anterior deltoid and pectoralis major, which act as internal rotators as well as compensatory movements of the scapula. Subjects were asked to only slowly downward of the arms while bearing the weight of the dumbbells to internal rotation by eccentric contraction. The period of familiarization was provided sufficiently to accurately understand exercise methods for each muscle contraction type in advance prior to measurement. Subjects performed three trials in each contraction phase during ER exercise. EMG activity data were collected during the middle 3-second of the 5 seconds of measurement for each phase during exercise, with and without biofeedback. Mean values of EMG activity and the infraspinatus to posterior deltoid ratio were compared to identify differences between with and without biofeedback and among muscle contraction types.

#### 4. Statistical Analyses

We used PASW ver. 18.0 for Windows (IBM Co.). A 2 (with and without biofeedback)  $\times$  3 (muscle contraction type) mixed-model repeated-measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine: 1) the main effect of with and without

biofeedback and muscle contraction type, and 2) the interaction effect between with and without biofeedback and muscle contraction type on the activity of the infraspinatus and posterior deltoid muscles, and muscle activity ratio. If significant differences were found, we used the Bonferroni correction for significant main effects and pair-wise comparison with Bonferroni correction for significant biofeedback  $\times$  contraction type interactions. The significance level was set at  $\alpha < 0.05$ .

## RESULTS

### 1. Infraspinatus Muscle Activity

There was a significant interaction effect between biofeedback and contraction type ( $F_{2,13} = 10.471$ ,  $p = 0.002$ ). Among all contraction types, muscle activity was higher in with than without biofeedback (Table 1). Muscle activity was highest during isometric contraction and significantly higher than in other contraction types with biofeedback ( $36.94 \pm 11.86$  %MVIC isometric vs.  $28.86 \pm 4.46$  %MVIC concentric,  $p = 0.041$ ;  $36.94 \pm 11.86$  %MVIC isometric vs.  $18.20 \pm 4.89$  %MVIC eccentric,  $p < 0.001$ ). There was also a significant different between concentric and eccentric contraction ( $28.86 \pm 4.46$  %MVIC concentric vs.  $18.20 \pm 4.89$  %MVIC eccentric,  $p < 0.001$ ) (Figure 2). Without biofeedback, muscle activity was highest during isometric contraction, with a significant difference in muscle activity between all contraction types ( $28.15 \pm 10.76$  %MVIC isometric vs.  $20.39 \pm 5.65$  %MVIC concentric,  $p = 0.033$ ;  $28.15 \pm 10.76$  %MVIC isometric vs.  $15.87 \pm 4.51$  %MVIC eccentric,  $p < 0.001$ ;  $20.39 \pm 5.65$  %MVIC concentric vs.  $15.87 \pm 4.51$  %MVIC eccentric,  $p = 0.034$ ) (Figure 2).

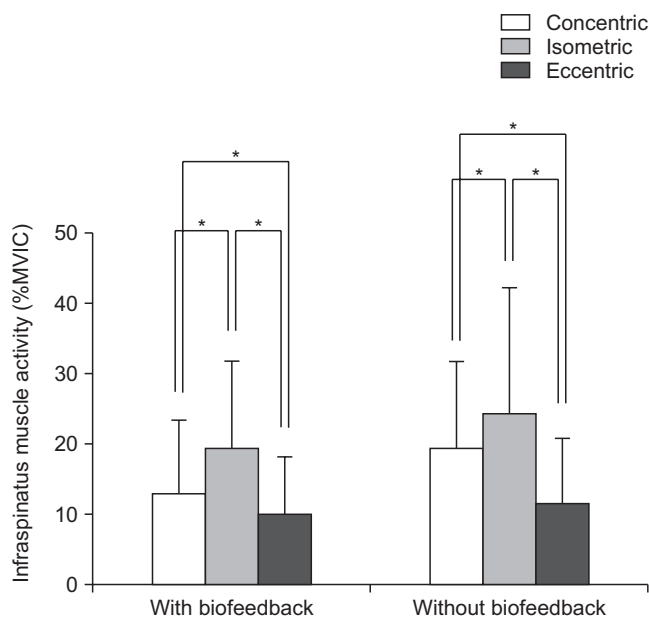
### 2. Posterior Deltoid Muscle Activity

There were significant main effects of contraction type ( $F_{2,13} = 8.797$ ,  $p = 0.004$ ) and biofeedback ( $F_{1,14} = 18.456$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ).

**Table 1.** Mean ± standard deviation muscle activity and muscle activity ratio during concentric, isometric, and eccentric contraction, with and without biofeedback

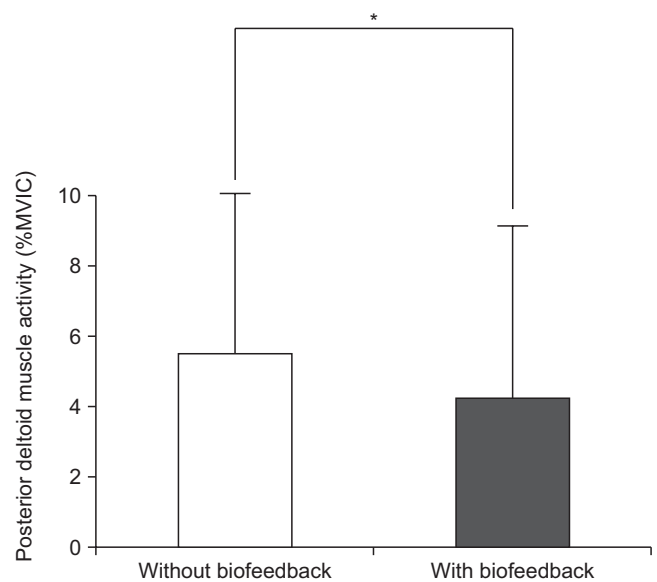
Variable	Muscle contraction	Without biofeedback	With biofeedback	Mean difference (95% CI)	p-value
Infraspinatus (%MVIC)	Concentric	20.39 ± 5.65	28.86 ± 4.46	3.04 [0.45–5.63]	0.025
	Isometric	28.15 ± 10.76	36.94 ± 11.86	1.71 [0.44–3.86]	0.001
	Eccentric	15.87 ± 4.51	18.20 ± 4.89	3.13 [0.74–5.51]	0.014
Posterior deltoid (%MVIC)	Concentric	11.29 ± 6.60	7.97 ± 4.81	3.31 [1.41–5.21]	0.002
	Isometric	8.24 ± 3.42	6.01 ± 2.26	2.23 [0.93–3.53]	0.002
	Eccentric	10.19 ± 4.19	9.10 ± 3.57	1.08 [0.05–2.11]	0.040
Activity ratio	Concentric	2.38 ± 1.30	4.68 ± 2.47	-2.30 [-3.51 to -1.09]	0.002
	Isometric	3.81 ± 1.72	6.50 ± 2.02	-2.69 [-4.03 to -1.33]	0.002
	Eccentric	1.83 ± 1.11	2.23 ± 1.00	-0.39 [-0.85 to 0.06]	0.080

Values are presented as mean ± standard deviation. %MVIC, percentage of maximal voluntary isometric contraction; CI, confidence interval.



**Figure 2.** Comparison of infraspinatus muscle activity between muscle contraction types with and without biofeedback. %MVIC, percentage of maximal voluntary isometric contraction. \*p < 0.05.

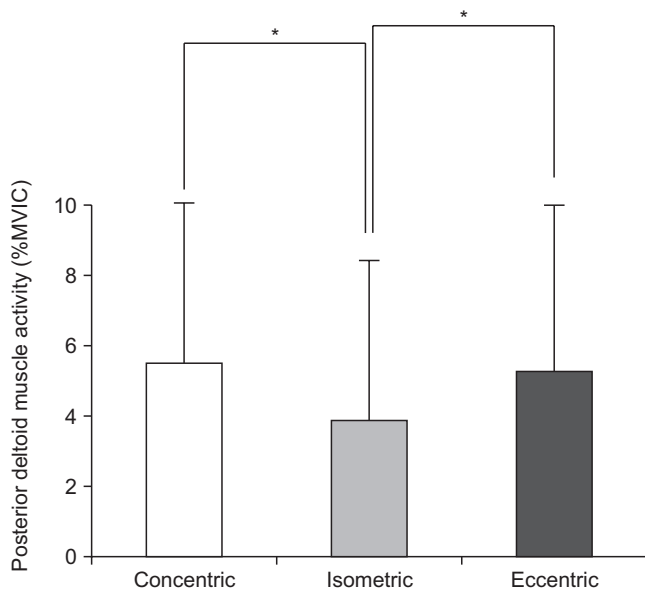
However, there was no significant biofeedback × contraction type interaction effect ( $F_{2,13} = 2.231$ ,  $p = 0.14$ ). Muscle activity was significantly lower with than without biofeedback ( $7.70 \pm 0.87$  %MVIC with biofeedback vs.  $9.91 \pm 1.12$  %MVIC without biofeedback,  $p = 0.001$ ) (Figure 3), and muscle activity was lowest during isometric contraction, being significantly lower than during concentric ( $7.13 \pm 0.68$  %MVIC isometric vs.  $9.63 \pm 1.42$  %MVIC concentric,  $p = 0.034$ ) and eccentric contraction ( $7.13 \pm 0.68$  %MVIC isometric vs.  $9.65 \pm 0.97$  %MVIC eccentric,  $p = 0.004$ ). However, there was no significant difference between concentric and eccentric contraction ( $9.63 \pm 1.42$  %MVIC concentric vs.  $9.65 \pm 0.97$  %MVIC eccentric,  $p = 1.00$ ) (Figure 4).



**Figure 3.** Comparison of posterior deltoid muscle activity with and without biofeedback. %MVIC, percentage of maximal voluntary isometric contraction. \*p < 0.05.

### 3. Infraspinatus to Posterior Deltoid Muscle Activity Ratio

There was a significant biofeedback × contraction type interaction effect ( $F_{2,13} = 8.038$ ,  $p = 0.005$ ). The muscle activity ratio was higher with than without biofeedback during concentric and isometric contraction however, there was no significant difference in the muscle activity ratio during eccentric (Table 1). The muscle activity ratio was highest during isometric contraction with biofeedback and significantly higher than among the other contraction types ( $6.50 \pm 2.02$  %MVIC isometric vs.  $4.68 \pm 2.47$  %MVIC concentric,  $p < 0.001$ ;  $6.50 \pm 2.02$  %MVIC isometric vs.  $2.23 \pm 1.00$  %MVIC eccentric,  $p < 0.001$ ). There was also a significant difference between concentric and eccentric contraction ( $4.68 \pm 2.47$  %MVIC concentric vs.  $2.23 \pm 1.00$  %MVIC eccentric,  $p = 0.004$ ) (Figure 5). The



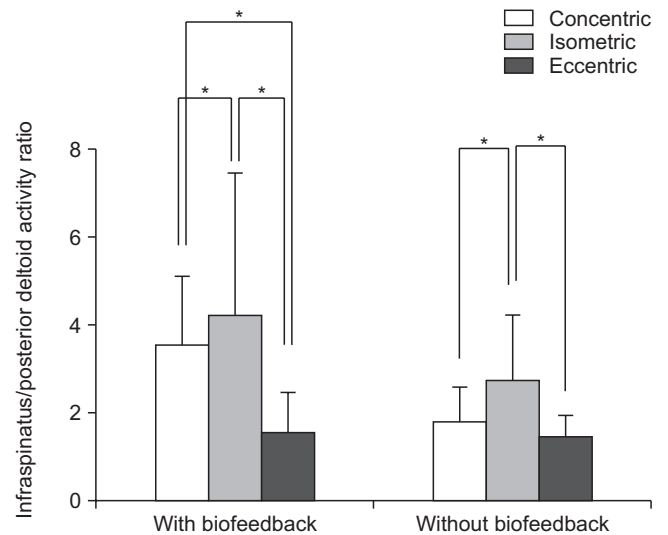
**Figure 4.** Comparison of posterior deltoid muscle activity between muscle contraction types. %MVIC, percentage of maximal voluntary isometric contraction. \* $p < 0.05$ .

muscle activity ratio for trials without biofeedback was highest during isometric contraction and significantly higher than other contraction types ( $3.81 \pm 1.72$  %MVIC isometric vs.  $2.38 \pm 1.30$  %MVIC concentric,  $p = 0.001$ ;  $3.81 \pm 1.72$  %MVIC isometric vs.  $1.83 \pm 1.11$  %MVIC eccentric,  $p = 0.002$ ). However, there was no significant difference between concentric and eccentric contraction ( $2.38 \pm 1.30$  %MVIC concentric vs.  $1.83 \pm 1.11$  %MVIC eccentric,  $p = 0.45$ ) (Figure 5).

## DISCUSSION

The aim of the current study was to investigate whether biofeedback for axial rotation was effective to activate selectively the infraspinatus through differences in muscle activity of the infraspinatus and posterior deltoid, and the activity ratio of the infraspinatus to posterior deltoid. Infraspinatus muscle activity was higher with axial rotation biofeedback than without biofeedback. These results suggest that axial rotation biofeedback training might be recommended for selective muscle activation of the infraspinatus.

The compressive force of the RC muscles not only maintains the humeral head centrally within the glenoid, but also reduces the shear forces. However, failure of the RC muscles to control the humeral head can alter the rotational axis and change normal kinematics [30]. When performing arm elevation, translation of the humeral head by about 1–1.5 mm based on



**Figure 5.** Comparison of infraspinatus to posterior deltoid muscle activity ratios between muscle contraction types with and without biofeedback. \* $p < 0.05$ .

the center of the glenoid cavity, was observed in subjects with impingement, an RC tear, or shoulder muscle fatigue [20,31,32]. This increased translation of the humeral head may contribute to shoulder pathologies such as impingement.

This study confirmed that muscle activity of the infraspinatus was higher in axial rotation biofeedback than without biofeedback among all muscle contraction types. These results can be explained by increased concavity compression due to control of humeral head translation during biofeedback training. Concavity compression refers to the compression of the humeral head into the concave glenoid fossa, which contributes to stabilizing the shoulder joint [20,33]. Subjects were provided biofeedback during the exercise, allowing them to adjust such that the axis of rotation could be kept constant. This improved motor control; better positioning of the humeral head within the concave glenoid fossa resulted in increased concavity compression forces and increased muscle activity of the infraspinatus under the biofeedback condition in our study. Among contraction types, infraspinatus muscle activity was higher in the order isometric > concentric > eccentric. Isometric contraction is useful to improve joint stability and has been reported to improve muscle strength by 60%–80% [34,35]. Torque values for the three contraction types could not be compared in the current study; however, unlike concentric and eccentric contraction, in which muscle length is continuously altered, muscle activity was likely higher during isometric contraction due to the constant production of internal torque,

as the length of the muscle was not altered during exercise. Therefore, the results of our study theoretically support use of isometric exercise effect for stability improvement, and suggest that isometric exercise is more effective than concentric or eccentric exercise. In our study, concentric contraction produced higher muscle activity than eccentric contraction. These results are explained by force–velocity relationship in which concentric torque increases along with a decreasing velocity, and eccentric torque increases as the velocity increases [36,37]. In our study, subjects performed exercises for 5 seconds per contraction type; because of their relatively slow speed, muscle activity was significantly higher during concentric contraction than during eccentric contraction. Given the findings of our study, we expect that concentric contraction at low velocity will prove more effective for selectively activating the infraspinatus muscle.

Posterior deltoid activity was lower with axial rotation biofeedback than without biofeedback. In our study, we observed posterior deltoid activity of 8.24 and 6.01 %MVIC with and without biofeedback, respectively, during isometric contraction. These results suggest that the muscle activity required for the infraspinatus to produce ER torque was higher than for the posterior deltoid during biofeedback training, leading to decrease in posterior deltoid muscle activity. Indeed, the results of infraspinatus to posterior deltoid activity ratios observed in the current study were approximately 2–6 for all contraction types with biofeedback training; these values were significantly higher than those without biofeedback training during concentric and isometric contraction. These findings similar from those of Lim et al. [25] who reported infraspinatus to posterior deltoid ratios for SER exercise with and without EMG biofeedback of 10.23 and 6.31, respectively. Recently Yu et al. [26] reported muscle activity ratios of approximately 3–5 with pressure biofeedback training, which were significantly higher than those without biofeedback. These results indicate greater activation of the infraspinatus is than the posterior deltoid during axial rotation biofeedback, particularly in isometric contraction. Based on these findings, we recommend axial rotation biofeedback strategy when performing the ER exercise in 90° abduction position for selective activation of the infraspinatus and simultaneous reduction of posterior deltoid activity, and a strategy like this is expected to prevent the shoulder injuries.

This study has several limitations. We investigated only healthy males in their 20s with similar physical characteristics.

Future research should investigate the effects of axial rotation biofeedback exercise in patients with shoulder pathologies such as shoulder impingement and should include females and subjects of various ages. We did not confirm the kinematics of humeral head translation or muscle activities surrounding the scapula during exercise; these variables should be examined in future studies of axial rotation biofeedback training. Finally, by the length–tension relationship of muscle, active tension of muscle is the most increased in the mid-range of joint but the muscle activities of isometric contraction were measured at the end-range of joint in the current study. Therefore, future studies are needed to consider that reflects the characteristics of the muscle–length tension relationship.

## CONCLUSIONS

We confirmed muscle activity in the infraspinatus and posterior deltoid muscles during axial rotation biofeedback training. Our study demonstrated that axial rotation biofeedback training significantly increased infraspinatus muscle activity and the infraspinatus to posterior deltoid muscle activity ratio, while decreasing posterior deltoid muscle activity during axial rotation biofeedback training. In particular, the muscle activity of the infraspinatus was highest during isometric contraction. Our findings show that axial rotation biofeedback is a novel and effective method for selectively activating the infraspinatus muscle while minimizing activation of the posterior deltoid muscle when performing the ER exercise in a 90° abducted shoulder position. These findings might be able to help clinicians design effective exercise program to enhance shoulder joint stability.

## FUNDING

None to declare.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

None.

## CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

No potential conflicts of interest relevant to this article are reported.

## AUTHOR CONTRIBUTION

Conceptualization: IY, JO. Data curation: IY. Formal analysis: IY. Investigation: IY. Methodology: IY, MK. Project administration: IY, JO. Resources: IY. Software: IY. Supervision: IY, JO. Validation: IY. Visualization: IY, MK. Writing - original draft: IY. Writing - review & editing: IY, MK, JO.

## ORCID

Il-young Yu, <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3262-2408>

Min-joo Ko, <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0493-8058>

## REFERENCES

- Lippitt SB, Vanderhooft JE, Harris SL, Sidles JA, Harryman DT 2nd, Matsen FA 3rd. Glenohumeral stability from concavity-compression: a quantitative analysis. *J Shoulder Elbow Surg* 1993;2(1):27-35.
- Inman VT, Saunders JB, Abbott LC. Observations of the function of the shoulder joint. *Clin Orthop Relat Res* 1996;(330):3-12.
- Terry GC, Chopp TM. Functional anatomy of the shoulder. *J Athl Train* 2000;35(3):248-55.
- Burkhart SS. Arthroscopic treatment of massive rotator cuff tears. Clinical results and biomechanical rationale. *Clin Orthop Relat Res* 1991;(267):45-56.
- Bitter NL, Clisby EF, Jones MA, Magarey ME, Jaberzadeh S, Sandow MJ. Relative contributions of infraspinatus and deltoid during external rotation in healthy shoulders. *J Shoulder Elbow Surg* 2007;16(5):563-8.
- Grimsby O, Rivard J. Science, theory and clinical application in orthopaedic manual physical therapy: scientific therapeutic exercise progressions (STEP): the neck and upper extremity. *The Academy of Graduate Physical Therapy*; 2008.
- Caldwell C, Sahrman S, Van Dillen L. Use of a movement system impairment diagnosis for physical therapy in the management of a patient with shoulder pain. *J Orthop Sports Phys Ther* 2007;37(9):551-63.
- Michener LA, McClure PW, Karduna AR. Anatomical and biomechanical mechanisms of subacromial impingement syndrome. *Clin Biomech (Bristol, Avon)* 2003;18(5):369-79.
- Kendall FP, McCreary EK, Provance PG. *Muscles: testing and function*. 4th ed. Williams & Wilkins; 1993.
- Lyman S, Fleisig GS, Andrews JR, Osinski ED. Effect of pitch type, pitch count, and pitching mechanics on risk of elbow and shoulder pain in youth baseball pitchers. *Am J Sports Med* 2002;30(4):463-8.
- Struyf F, Nijs J, Mollekens S, Jeurissen I, Truijten S, Mottram S, et al. Scapular-focused treatment in patients with shoulder impingement syndrome: a randomized clinical trial. *Clin Rheumatol* 2013;32(1):73-85.
- Burkhart SS, Morgan CD, Kibler WB. The disabled throwing shoulder: spectrum of pathology part III: The SICK scapula, scapular dyskinesis, the kinetic chain, and rehabilitation. *Arthroscopy* 2003;19(6):641-61.
- Townsend H, Jobe FW, Pink M, Perry J. Electromyographic analysis of the glenohumeral muscles during a baseball rehabilitation program. *Am J Sports Med* 1991;19(3):264-72.
- Wilk KE, Meister K, Andrews JR. Current concepts in the rehabilitation of the overhead throwing athlete. *Am J Sports Med* 2002;30(1):136-51.
- Reinold MM, Wilk KE, Fleisig GS, Zheng N, Barrentine SW, Chmielewski T, et al. Electromyographic analysis of the rotator cuff and deltoid musculature during common shoulder external rotation exercises. *J Orthop Sports Phys Ther* 2004;34(7):385-94.
- Myers JB, Pasquale MR, Laudner KG, Sell TC, Bradley JP, Lephart SM. On-the-field resistance-tubing exercises for throwers: an electromyographic analysis. *J Athl Train* 2005;40(1):15-22.
- Fleisig GS, Barrentine SW, Escamilla RF, Andrews JR. Biomechanics of overhand throwing with implications for injuries. *Sports Med* 1996;21(6):421-37.
- Wilk KE, Arrigo CA, Andrews JR. Current concepts: the stabilizing structures of the glenohumeral joint. *J Orthop Sports Phys Ther* 1997;25(6):364-79.
- Lunnen JD, Yack J, LeVeau BF. Relationship between muscle length, muscle activity, and torque of the hamstring muscles. *Phys Ther* 1981;61(2):190-5.
- Poppen NK, Walker PS. Forces at the glenohumeral joint in abduction. *Clin Orthop Relat Res* 1978;(135):165-70.
- Jones DA, Round JM, de Haan A. *Skeletal muscle from molecules to movement: a textbook of muscle physiology for sport, exercise, physiotherapy and medicine*. Churchill Livingstone; 2004.
- Holtermann A, Roeleveld K, Mork PJ, Grönlund C, Karlsson JS, Andersen LL, et al. Selective activation of neuromuscular

- compartments within the human trapezius muscle. *J Electromyogr Kinesiol* 2009;19(5):896-902.
23. **Holtermann A, Mork PJ, Andersen LL, Olsen HB, Søgaard K.** The use of EMG biofeedback for learning of selective activation of intra-muscular parts within the serratus anterior muscle: a novel approach for rehabilitation of scapular muscle imbalance. *J Electromyogr Kinesiol* 2010;20(2):359-65.
  24. **Huang HY, Lin JJ, Guo YL, Wang WT, Chen YJ.** EMG biofeedback effectiveness to alter muscle activity pattern and scapular kinematics in subjects with and without shoulder impingement. *J Electromyogr Kinesiol* 2013;23(1):267-74.
  25. **Lim OB, Kim JA, Song SJ, Cynn HS, Yi CH.** Effect of selective muscle training using visual EMG biofeedback on infraspinatus and posterior deltoid. *J Hum Kinet* 2014;44:83-90.
  26. **Yu IY, Choo YK, Kim MH, Oh JS.** The effects of pressure biofeedback training on infraspinatus muscle activity and muscle thickness. *J Electromyogr Kinesiol* 2018;39:81-8.
  27. **Park SY, Yoo WG.** Effects of hand and knee positions on muscular activity during trunk extension exercise with the Roman chair. *J Electromyogr Kinesiol* 2014;24(6):972-6.
  28. **Magee DJ.** Orthopedic physical assessment. 5th ed. W.B. Saunders; 2008.
  29. **Kendall FP, McCreary EK, Provance PG, Rodgers MM, Romani WA.** Muscles: testing and testing and function with posture and pain. 5th ed. Lippincott Williams & Wilkins; 2005.
  30. **Comerford M, Mottram S.** Kinetic control: the management of uncontrolled movement. Churchill Livingstone; 2012.
  31. **Chen SK, Simonian PT, Wickiewicz TL, Otis JC, Warren RF.** Radiographic evaluation of glenohumeral kinematics: a muscle fatigue model. *J Shoulder Elbow Surg* 1999;8(1):49-52.
  32. **Yamaguchi K, Sher JS, Andersen WK, Garretson R, Uribe JW, Hechtman K, et al.** Glenohumeral motion in patients with rotator cuff tears: a comparison of asymptomatic and symptomatic shoulders. *J Shoulder Elbow Surg* 2000;9(1):6-11.
  33. **Kelkar R, Wang VM, Flatow EL, Newton PM, Ateshian GA, Bigliani LU, et al.** Glenohumeral mechanics: a study of articular geometry, contact, and kinematics. *J Shoulder Elbow Surg* 2001;10(1):73-84.
  34. **Knapik JJ, Mawdsley RH, Ramos MU.** Angular specificity and test mode specificity of isometric and isokinetic strength training. *J Orthop Sports Phys Ther* 1983;5(2):58-65.
  35. **Weir JP, Housh TJ, Weir LL.** Electromyographic evaluation of joint angle specificity and cross-training after isometric training. *J Appl Physiol* (1985) 1994;77(1):197-201.
  36. **Duncan PW, Chandler JM, Cavanaugh DK, Johnson KR, Buehler AG.** Mode and speed specificity of eccentric and concentric exercise training. *J Orthop Sports Phys Ther* 1989;11(2):70-5.
  37. **Horstmann T, Maschmann J, Mayer F, Heitkamp HC, Handel M, Dickhuth HH.** The influence of age on isokinetic torque of the upper and lower leg musculature in sedentary men. *Int J Sports Med* 1999;20(6):362-7.