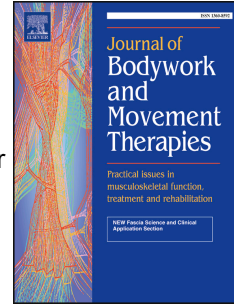


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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 **Introduction:** Although the importance of trunk position sense as a clinical outcome measure
3 related to spinal alignment has been established, there is no study evaluating the reliability of
4 measurement techniques for trunk position sense in older adults. Hyperkyphosis is most
5 prevalent in this population and is associated with adverse consequences.

6 **Objective:** This study aimed to investigate the test-retest reliability of a measurement
7 technique consisting of photogrammetry and angle calculation in older adults with and without
8 hyperkyphosis.

9 **Methods:** Fifty-three older adults completed the tests. Participants actively reproduced a trunk
10 neutral position (TNP) from both a trunk extended position and a trunk flexed position.
11 Absolute error (AE) and variable error (VE) indices were calculated to quantify position sense
12 acuity. Intraclass Correlation Coefficient was used to estimate relative reliability. Absolute
13 reliability was assessed by calculating Standard Error of the Measurements (SEM) and
14 Minimal Detectable Change (MDC).

15 **Results:** The digital photogrammetry showed excellent reliability for horizontal and global
16 components of AE in both hyperkyphosis and control groups while reproducing the TNP from
17 trunk flexion. Also, there was good reliability for AE and VE in the hyperkyphosis group when
18 moving to the TNP from the trunk extension. The MDC values for AE ranged from 0.32 to
19 0.44 while reproducing the TNP from trunk flexion. The MDC values for AE ranged up to 0.96
20 when reproducing the TNP from trunk extension.

21 **Conclusion:** This study suggests that digital photogrammetry is a reliable method with clinical
22 applicability, which allows the detection of changes after clinical interventions.

23

24 **Keywords:** Hyperkyphosis; Proprioception; Position sense; Reliability; Reproducibility of
25 Results

1 **1. Introduction**

2 Proprioception is commonly used to describe afferent neural information derived from the
3 stimulation of mechanoreceptors in joints, tendons, muscles, ligaments, and skin (Sherrington
4 1952). This sensory information is transmitted to the central nervous system (CNS) for processing
5 and integration with other somatosensory, visual and vestibular information (Shumway-Cook and
6 Woollacott 1995). Conscious components of proprioception include joint position sense (JPS),
7 kinesthesia (detection of joint movement), and force sense (ability to detect the amount of muscle
8 tension accurately) (Kandel et al. 2000, Riemann and Lephart 2002, Roijezon et al. 2015). Among
9 these proprioception components, perception of position and relative orientation of body parts in
10 space, called JPS, play an essential role in attaining and maintaining optimal body alignment
11 (Dolan and Green 2006, Granito et al. 2012, Korakakis et al. 2017, Wong et al. 2019). Accordingly,
12 there is evidence that JPS is associated with thoracic kyphosis angle in the elderly with
13 hyperkyphosis (Granito et al. 2012). It is unclear whether a decline in proprioception information
14 is a predisposing factor to this spinal deformity or, conversely, changes in muscle length and even
15 muscle endurance (i.e., fatigue resistance) and the consequent decrease in muscle spindle
16 excitability due to hyperkyphotic posture have led to abnormal afferent information originating
17 from muscle receptors and consequently impaired proprioception (Taimela et al. 1999, Reddy et
18 al. 2012, Boucher et al. 2015, Larson 2018). In any case, people appear to be trapped in a vicious
19 circle, and impaired trunk position sense has reduced the ability to maintain an upright spinal
20 posture in the elderly with hyperkyphosis. Age-related hyperkyphosis is associated with significant
21 health consequences such as decreased respiratory function, impaired physical performance, gait,
22 and balance disturbances, and, consequently, increased risk of falls and mortality (Katzman et al.
23 2010, Roghani et al. 2017). Thus, detection and monitoring of potential contributing factors to the

1 development or progression of hyperkyphosis in older adults is vital (Britnell et al. 2005).
2 Proprioception is considered an important clinical outcome measure in this population (Granito et
3 al. 2012, Keshavarzi et al. 2022a, Keshavarzi et al. 2022b), especially since rehabilitation programs
4 can contribute to proprioception improvement (Hosseinabadi et al. 2020). Therefore, valid and
5 reliable measurement techniques for assessing proprioception are essential for clinicians to
6 monitor interventions' effectiveness.

7 The JPS is assessed by repositioning accuracy, which measures a person's ability to actively and/or
8 passively reproduce a predetermined target position. The error in reproducing the target position
9 is defined as a repositioning accuracy error. Previous literature suggests that JPS assessment during
10 active movement is functionally more relevant than assessment during passive movement by an
11 external device, as these conditions stimulate both joint receptors and muscle receptors (Rix and
12 Bagust 2001, Strimpakos et al. 2006). Various methods such as electrogoniometry, isokinetic
13 dynamometry, dual inclinometer, 3-Space Fastrak, and digital photography were employed to
14 evaluate JPS in different body segments like shoulder, knee, ankle, and spine (Swinkels and Dolan
15 1998, Brumagne et al. 1999, Relph and Herrington 2015, Ghamkhar et al. 2018, Hosseinabadi et
16 al. 2020). Among these methods, digital photography is cost-effective, accessible, and easy to use
17 and seems to have more clinical applicability with good reliability for evaluating JPS in various
18 body segments (Smith et al. 2013, Ghamkhar et al. 2018, Mousavi-Khatir et al. 2018). Although
19 this technique has clinical applicability, because of having a time-consuming computation method,
20 it may not be used by clinicians. However, researchers may benefit from digital photography as a
21 reliable, safe, and inexpensive method in research settings. To the best of our knowledge, there is
22 no study evaluating the reliability of measurement techniques for trunk position sense in older

1 adults. Accordingly, the purpose of the present study was to investigate the test-retest reliability of
2 digital photography in the elderly with or without hyperkyphosis.

3

4 **2. Methods**

5 ***2.1. Participants***

6 The present cross-sectional study was conducted between April 2020 to October 2020 at the
7 School of Rehabilitation Sciences, XXXX University of Medical Sciences. The sample size was
8 estimated as at least 22 participants per group based on the guideline presented by Bujang (Bujang
9 and Baharum 2017), assuming the null hypothesis value of ICC = 0.5 (any values less than 0.5
10 indicate poor reliability is considered clinically unacceptable), α value of 0.05 and test power of
11 80% ($\beta = 0.2$) for two replicated measurements (twice by the same rater). Considering possible
12 dropouts, 30 participants per group were invited to participate in the present study. A convenience
13 sample of older adults with and or without hyperkyphosis was recruited through public
14 announcements; 30 older adults with hyperkyphosis and 30 age-matched controls. Older adults
15 over the age of 60 years who could stand and walk without assistance were included. The inclusion
16 criteria were a thoracic kyphosis above 50 degrees for the hyperkyphosis group and below 50
17 degrees for the control group (Boseker et al. 2000). Exclusion criteria were history of fractures,
18 surgery or trauma to the spine, inflammatory diseases such as ankylosing spondylitis, rheumatoid
19 arthritis, spinal deformities other than hyperkyphosis, cardiopulmonary disease, severe
20 osteoporosis, CNS disease, neuromuscular disorders, diabetic neuropathy, or history of taking
21 medicines affecting the CNS. All participants underwent a comprehensive physical examination
22 by an experienced physical therapist to assess eligibility criteria. Participants received information

1 regarding the study procedure and then signed written informed consent. The Ethics Committee at
2 XXXX University of Medical Sciences approved the study (XXXX).

3 ***2.2.Examiner and outcome assessments***

4 All measurements were performed by the first author (F.K.), who was a PhD candidate in Orthotics
5 and Prosthetics with over three years of clinical experience and ample practice in photogrammetry
6 assessments. For the test-retest intrarater reliability assessment, the measurements were repeated
7 at a one-week interval in completely homogeneous conditions (concerning the examiner, time,
8 location, light and ambient temperature, camera position, and individual position). The examiner
9 was blinded to her own prior results.

10 ***2.3.Measurement of the thoracic kyphosis degree***

11 Thoracic kyphosis degree was measured using photogrammetry examination as described
12 previously (Porto and Okazaki 2017, Azadinia et al. 2021). Participants wore an open-back gown,
13 and spinous processes of the seventh cervical (C₇) and twelfth thoracic (T₁₂) vertebrae were
14 detected by palpation and marked by a pencil. Then, custom-made lightweight 3-cm long markers
15 were adhered vertically to the skin by double-sided adhesive tape on the spinous processes of the
16 C₇ and T₁₂ vertebrae. The participants stood barefoot in their habitual standing position. The legs
17 were shoulder-width apart, the arms were flexed, and the fists were placed on the clavicle. The
18 camera was fixed at a distance of one meter from the participant's body, but its height was adjusted
19 according to each person's height so that the camera lens was centered on the mid-thoracic
20 vertebrae and the whole spine length was in view. Three photographs were taken with a Nikon
21 camera (Nikon D5300, 24.2-megapixel, Nikon, Thailand) from the right side of the participants
22 during inhalation. Digital photographic records were imported to AutoCAD software. The angle

1 formed between the intersections of the straight-line extensions drawn from the markers at the C₇
2 and T₁₂ vertebrae was measured as the thoracic kyphosis angle (TKA).

3 ***2.4. Position sense measurement***

4 Position sense was assessed by the active angle reproduction test, which measures a person's
5 ability to reproduce a predetermined target position. To evaluate repositioning, female participants
6 wore a sports bra, and male participants removed their upper body clothing during the test. The
7 participants sat on an adjustable chair in their normal upright posture. This chair had a short
8 backrest to limit lumbopelvic motion. The contact of the participant's lumbopelvic region to the
9 chair's backrest was monitored by a switch mounted on the chair's backrest that turned a light.
10 The hips and knees were at 90° flexion, the arms were crossed over the chest, and the fingertips
11 touched the shoulder. A custom-made lightweight 3-cm long marker was placed to the C₇ spinous
12 process. The camera was located at a height of 1 meter from the ground and a distance of 1 meter
13 from the imaginary line perpendicular to the chair's backrest (Figure 1). The right side of the
14 participant's body was facing the camera. The participants were asked to adopt their neutral upright
15 posture and focus on this posture and maintain this position for 5 seconds. In this condition, a
16 photograph was taken using the camera.

17 The participants were then asked to perform maximum flexion and extension without any pain or
18 discomfort and without detaching the lumbo-pelvic from the chair's backrest at their preferred
19 speed while maintaining a neutral neck position. Then, they relocated the initial neutral position
20 as accurately as possible, informing the examiner by pressing the handheld button of the laser
21 pointer in their left hand, and a photograph was captured by the camera. The participants received
22 no feedback on their performance. Six trials were repeated for each direction from trunk flexion
23 or trunk extension to the neutral position. The order of trunk flexion or extension was chosen

1 randomly. Participants were blindfolded to remove visual clues. We evaluated position sense at
2 least three hours after waking up to minimize the effects of diurnal variation. Participants were
3 also asked to refrain from strenuous physical activity for 24 hours before testing. also eating or
4 drinking for 2 hours before testing.

5 The photograph records were imported into Paint software. The marker position in the Paint
6 software for each photograph was extracted on the abscissa (X-axis) and ordinate (Y-axis) in pixels
7 and converted to centimeters. Then, in a custom-made program developed in Excel, using these
8 two values (i.e., horizontal components or the projection on the X axis, and vertical component or
9 the projection on the Y axis), the global components (i.e., the linear length extending from the
10 reference point to the marker location) were calculated by the equation of $R = \sqrt{X^2 + Y^2}$. Using
11 trigonometric laws (i.e. $\tan^{-1} R/100 \text{ cm}$), repositioning errors were calculated in degrees
12 (Figure 2). Absolute error (AE) and variable error (VE) indices were calculated to quantify position
13 sense acuity. The AE measures the overall accuracy of repositioning performance, which has been
14 reported as the primary outcome measure in previous studies(Strimpakos et al. 2006, Mousavi-
15 Khatir et al. 2018). Higher AE values indicated less accurate repositioning performance. The VE
16 determines the consistency (i.e., variability) of repositioning. This index quantifies the variability
17 of participants' performance around their mean response. Higher VE values indicate less consistent
18 repositioning performance. The AE and VE indices along the global, horizontal and vertical
19 components were calculated in degrees.

20 ***2.5. Statistical analysis***

21 SPSS Version 22 was used for the statistical analysis. All the data were encoded to prevent bias in
22 data analysis and to blind the statistician. Normal distribution of variables was assessed by the
23 Shapiro-Wilk test and histograms. Paired t-test or Wilcoxon signed-rank test was performed on

1 measurements obtained in test and retest sessions to verify the absence of systematic bias. A two-
2 way random model of the Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (ICC_{2,3}) was used to estimate relative
3 reliability. The classification proposed by Koo and Li (Koo and Li 2016) was used to interpret the
4 relative reliability indices; ICCs < 0.5 were considered as poor, 0.5 < ICC < 0.75 as moderate, 0.75 <
5 ICC < 0.90 as good, and > 0.90 as excellent. Absolute reliability was assessed by calculating the
6 Standard Error of the Measurements (SEM), which is an estimate of the error value associated
7 with the measurement ($SEM = SD \times \sqrt{1 - ICC}$) and it is also used to calculate the Minimal
8 Detectable Change ($MDC = \sqrt{2} \times 1.96 \times SEM$). The MDC shows how much change is needed to
9 ensure that the resulting change is not a mere measurement error and that a real change in position
10 sense has occurred. The significance level was set at 0.05.

11

12 **3. Results**

13 Fifty-three older adults (30 with hyperkyphosis and 23 normal age-matched controls) completed
14 both measurement sessions. Table 1 presents the demographic characteristics of the participants.
15 There were no significant differences between position sense errors between the test and retest
16 sessions, indicating the absence of systematic bias (Table 2). The digital photogrammetry showed
17 excellent relative reliability for horizontal and global components of AE (ICC= 0.92-0.96) and
18 moderate reliability for its vertical component (ICC= 0.51-0.65) in both hyperkyphosis and control
19 groups while reproducing the neutral trunk position from a flexed position. Moreover, the findings
20 revealed excellent and good reliability (ICC= 0.76-0.94) of reproducing the neutral position from
21 a flexed position for horizontal and global components of VE in the hyperkyphosis and control
22 groups, respectively, and moderate reliability (ICC= 0.56-0.62) for its vertical component in both
23 groups.

1 Also, these findings showed good relative reliability for vertical, horizontal, and global
2 components of AE and VE in the hyperkyphosis group when moving to the neutral trunk position
3 from the trunk extended position (ICC= 0.80-0.87). In the control group, there was good relative
4 reliability (ICC= 0.84-0.89) for horizontal and global components of AE and global component of
5 VE. Also, the control group had excellent reliability for the horizontal component of VE (ICC=
6 0.92) and moderate reliability (ICC= 0.69-0.74) for vertical components of AE and VE when
7 reproducing the neutral trunk position from the trunk extended position. The results of the test-
8 retest analysis are reported in Table 3, including ICC with 95% confidence interval (CI), SEM,
9 and MDC.

10

11 **4. Discussion**

12 The current study aimed to evaluate the test-retest reliability of a new approach of digital
13 photogrammetry and angle calculation through trigonometrically to measure trunk position sense
14 in the elderly with and without hyperkyphosis. The findings generally suggested moderate to
15 excellent reliability of repositioning accuracy measurements for the trunk's global, vertical and
16 horizontal components during actively reproducing neutral position sense in the elderly with and
17 without hyperkyphosis.

18 Some researchers have recently examined correlations between hyperkyphotic posture and
19 proprioceptive deficit and changes in trunk position sense after clinical interventions (Granito et
20 al. 2012, Hosseinabadi et al. 2020, Keshavarzi et al. 2022a, Keshavarzi et al. 2022b). These
21 researchers suggested that trunk position sense can be a potentially modifiable impairment
22 associated with age-related hyperkyphosis (Granito et al., 2012; Keshavarzi et al., 2022b).
23 Hosseinabadi et al. (2020) reported a decrease in AE as a result of 3 months of orthotic treatment.

1 Also, Keshavarzi et al. (2022a) observed a significant increase in both AE and VE values in the
2 control group who did not receive intervention for age-related hyperkyphosis.

3 Although the importance of trunk position sense as a clinical outcome measure related to spinal
4 alignment has been well established, there is no study evaluating the reliability of measurement
5 techniques for trunk position sense in older adults. In the present study, the test-retest reliability of
6 the trunk to the neutral position test, regardless of whether the starting position was a trunk flexed
7 or extended posture, was good to excellent for AE in its global and horizontal components in both
8 groups, albeit the ICCs were higher when moving from the trunk flexed position to the neutral
9 position. However, concerning its vertical component, it ranged from moderate to good depending
10 on movement directions and groups. Also, the reliability for VE was higher in its global and
11 horizontal components than its vertical component. Muscle spindles of contracting muscles
12 contribute to repositioning ability (Gandevia et al. 1992), and better reliability results from a trunk
13 flexed than extended position can be attributed to differences in the number of muscle spindles
14 and consequently in repositioning abilities of different muscle groups involved in performing these
15 movements (Brumagne et al. 2000). The dorsal paraspinal muscles (i.e., the multifidus and the
16 erector spinae), which support the spine, and act as trunk extensors, activate during movement
17 from the trunk flexed position to the neutral position (Neumann 2016). These dorsal paraspinal
18 muscles have a higher density of spindles than the trunk flexors (such as the Rectus Abdominis)
19 which activate during movement from a trunk-extended position to the neutral position (Cao et al.
20 2009). AE and VE values were higher in the elderly with hyperkyphosis than in the age-matched
21 controls. These findings are consistent with the previous literature and support impaired spinal
22 position sense in older adults with hyperkyphosis compared with age-matched controls (Granito
23 et al. 2012, Keshavarzi et al. 2022).

1 The ICC values obtained in this study were slightly higher than those previously reported for a
2 similar measurement technique. However, in those two studies, within-day test-retest reliability of
3 cervicocephalic relocation test with an average of 10 trials was assessed in healthy adolescents
4 (Pinsault et al. 2008, Mousavi-Khatir et al. 2018). Furthermore, different demographic
5 characteristics of participants, regional differences, such as the number of joints involved in
6 producing spinal movement or the density of mechanoreceptors in the muscles of that area, may
7 justify a slight discrepancy between our results and those previously reported (Pinsault et al. 2008,
8 Mousavi-Khatir et al. 2018). In addition, the number of repetitions also affects the JPS test results.
9 In the studies by Pinsault et al. (Pinsault et al. 2008) and Mousavi Khatir et al. (2018), an average
10 of 10 trials was used for reliability analysis.

11 On the other hand, both studies examined within-day test-retest reliability, meaning that all
12 measurements occurred on the same day, whereas we evaluated test-retest reliability with a time
13 interval of 7 days. Some confounding factors, such as learning, fatigue, and postural changes, may
14 affect reliability measurements in a time interval between sessions (Ghorbani et al. 2020).
15 However, reproducibility with a time interval of 7 days is not long to be affected by postural
16 changes and not short to be affected by learning. Also, test-retest reliability within one session
17 cannot evaluate the reproducibility of digital photogrammetry for follow-up purposes.

18 In the previous literature, various methods have been employed to measure spinal position sense,
19 but it seems that digital photography has higher reliability than others. For example, the ICC values
20 observed in the present study were different from those reported by Petersen et al. (Petersen et al.
21 2008) using a designed reposition sense device. The device designed by those authors consisted of
22 two-meter sticks, one vertical and one horizontal, and a sliding mechanism, which measured the
23 horizontal and vertical displacement of the spinous process of the marked vertebrae (Petersen,

1 Zimmermann et al. 2008). They also calculated the reproduction angle using a trigonometric
2 equation and found poor reliability (ICC= 0.38) for their designed device. Our reliability findings
3 were also substantially higher than those reported for other spinal repositioning measurement
4 techniques, such as electrogoniometry and 3-Space Fastrak (Swinkels and Dolan 1998, Brumagne,
5 et al. 1999).

6 We have also extracted the SEM and MDC values to show the real changes needed following
7 clinical interventions. These values were low for AE, especially while reproducing a trunk neutral
8 position from the flexed position, indicating this technique's high absolute reliability. Both AE
9 and VE were lower in the present study than those obtained in other studies (Pinsault et al. 2008,
10 Mousavi-Khatir et al. 2018). However, They used different methods such as the experimental
11 procedure, body segment, and the study population. Our SEM values for AE were lower than those
12 reported for other spinal repositioning measurement techniques in previous studies, indicating the
13 superiority of the absolute reliability of the measurement technique used in the present study
14 compared to other techniques (Swinkels and Dolan 1998, Brumagne et al. 1999, Petersen, et al.
15 2008). The MDC values for both AE and VE were lower while moving the trunk from a flexed
16 position than moving from an extended position. The abovementioned assumption regarding the
17 difference in muscle spindle density in the trunk flexors and extensors can justify these findings.

18

19 ***4.1.Limitation***

20 This study did not assess inter-rater reliability because the aim was to evaluate the reproducibility
21 of digital photogrammetry for measuring trunk repositioning accuracy during follow-up, which
22 does not require multiple assessors. Further research is needed to evaluate the inter-rater reliability
23 of the photogrammetric technique. Also, the concurrent validity of this technique should be

1 evaluated to reveal how well spinal position sense measured by digital photogrammetry correlates
2 with other techniques such as electrogoniometry and 3-Space Fastrak.

3

4 **5. Conclusion**

5 This study suggests that the measurement technique consisting of digital photography and angle
6 calculation through trigonometry is a reliable, low-cost, easy-to-perform method with clinical
7 applicability, which allows for detecting changes following clinical interventions.

8

9 ***5.1. Clinical relevance***

- 10 • Digital photogrammetry is a reliable method for measuring trunk position sense in the elderly
11 with and without hyperkyphosis.
- 12 • This reliable and low-cost technique has another advantage; unlike other techniques, the
13 measurement device has no contact with the body and therefore does not generate additional
14 cutaneous inputs.

15

16

17

18

19

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21 The authors would like to thank all participants for their valuable contributions.

22

23 **Competing interests**

1 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

2

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Figure Legends:

Figure 1. The experimental setup for trunk repositioning test.

Figure 2. Quantifying of angle reproduction.

C: Camera; O: Initial reference position; OC= 100cm, Distance between camera from initial marker position; M: Marker location during repositioning test; OM = R: Repositioning error in centimeters; X: Abscissa of M; Y: Ordinate of M; $\alpha = \text{tangent}^{-1} X/100 \text{ cm}$; $\beta = \text{tangent}^{-1} Y/100 \text{ cm}$; $\theta = \text{tangent}^{-1} R/100 \text{ cm}$

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Table 1. Demographic characteristics of participants.

	Hyperkyphosis group (n=30)	Normal control group (n=23)
Sex (Male/Female)	6/24	10/13
Age (year)	68.3 ± 5.2	67.2 ± 4.6
Height (cm)	160.5 ± 7.7	162.9 ± 7.7
Body weight (kg)	67.2 ± 13.5	68 ± 10.1
Body mass index (kg/m²)	25.8 ± 3	25.6 ± 3.6
Thoracic kyphosis angle (degree)	68.7 ± 7.9	40.6 ± 5.2

Note. Values are shown in mean ± standard deviation or number.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics for trunk position sense on test and retest sessions.

			Hyperkyphosis group (n=30)			Normal control group (n=23)		
			Session 1 (mean \pm SD)	Session 2 (mean \pm SD)	p-value	Session 1 (mean \pm SD)	Session 2 (mean \pm SD)	p-value
Reproduction of a trunk neutral position from a trunk flexed position (degree)	Horizontal (X)	AE	0.92 \pm 0.54	0.88 \pm 0.66	0.245	0.77 \pm 0.50	0.79 \pm 0.43	0.592
		VE	2.01 \pm 1.22	2.08 \pm 1.43	0.504	1.84 \pm 1.41	1.70 \pm 0.98	1.00
	Vertical (Y)	AE	0.26 \pm 0.28	0.24 \pm 0.21	0.504	0.25 \pm 0.19	0.28 \pm 0.22	0.22
		VE	0.59 \pm 0.65	0.53 \pm 0.34	0.959	0.56 \pm 0.35	0.62 \pm 0.41	0.487
	Global	AE	1.02 \pm 0.56	0.98 \pm 0.65	0.530	0.91 \pm 0.59	0.95 \pm 0.63	0.390
		VE	2.19 \pm 1.28	2.12 \pm 1.48	0.644	1.78 \pm 0.99	1.91 \pm 0.94	0.153
Reproduction of a trunk neutral position from a trunk extended position (degree)	Horizontal (X)	AE	1.44 \pm 0.98	1.27 \pm 0.96	0.262	1.03 \pm 0.68	0.92 \pm 0.64	0.378
		VE	3.08 \pm 2.30	3.19 \pm 2.05	0.254	2.65 \pm 1.68	2.72 \pm 1.77	0.670
	Vertical (Y)	AE	0.38 \pm 0.31	0.44 \pm 0.36	0.120	0.50 \pm 0.44	0.56 \pm 0.44	0.543
		VE	0.88 \pm 0.71	1.02 \pm 0.79	0.082	0.99 \pm 0.80	1.23 \pm 1.01	0.073
	Global	AE	1.58 \pm 0.94	1.41 \pm 0.94	0.262	1.30 \pm 0.71	1.34 \pm 0.68	0.693
		VE	3.31 \pm 2.25	3.37 \pm 1.98	0.393	2.85 \pm 1.67	2.91 \pm 1.76	0.523

Note. Values are shown in mean \pm standard deviation.
 AE: Absolute Error; VE: Variable Error.

Table 3. Test-retest reliability of trunk position sense measurements.

			Hyperkyphosis group (n=30)			Normal control group (n=23)		
			ICC (95% CI)	SEM	MDC	ICC (95% CI)	SEM	MDC
Reproduction of a trunk neutral position from a trunk flexed position (degree)	Horizontal (X)	AE	0.95 (0.89 – 0.97)	0.12	0.32	0.94 (0.86 – 0.97)	0.12	0.33
		VE	0.94 (0.88 – 0.97)	0.29	0.80	0.76 (0.45 – 0.90)	0.69	1.90
	Vertical (Y)	AE	0.65 (0.25 – 0.83)	0.16	0.44	0.51 (-0.17 – 0.79)	0.13	0.35
		VE	0.56 (0.06 – 0.79)	0.43	1.18	0.62 (0.11 – 0.84)	0.21	0.57
	Global	AE	0.92 (0.84 – 0.96)	0.15	0.41	0.96 (0.90 – 0.98)	0.11	0.30
		VE	0.92 (0.84 – 0.96)	0.36	0.99	0.87 (0.69 – 0.94)	0.35	0.96
Reproduction of a trunk neutral position from a trunk extended position (degree)	Horizontal (X)	AE	0.87 (0.74 – 0.94)	0.35	0.96	0.87 (0.71 – 0.94)	0.24	0.66
		VE	0.87 (0.73 – 0.94)	0.82	2.26	0.92 (0.82 – 0.96)	0.47	1.29
	Vertical (Y)	AE	0.81 (0.61 – 0.91)	0.13	0.35	0.74 (0.40 – 0.89)	0.22	0.60
		VE	0.80 (0.59 – 0.90)	0.31	0.85	0.69 (0.30 – 0.87)	0.44	1.21
	Global	AE	0.86 (0.71 – 0.93)	0.35	0.96	0.84 (0.63 – 0.93)	0.28	0.77
		VE	0.86 (0.72 – 0.93)	0.83	2.29	0.89 (0.75 – 0.95)	0.55	1.51

ICC: Intraclass Correlation Coefficient; SEM: Standard Error of Measurement; MDC: Minimal Detectable Change; AE: Absolute Error; VE: Variable Error.

