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43 Abstract

Background: Rotator cuff tears are the commonest tendon injury in the adult
population, resulting in substantial morbidity. The optimum management for these
patients is not known.

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49 Purpose: To assess the overall treatment response to all interventions in full50 thickness rotator cuff tears in patients enrolled in randomised clinical trials.

51

52 Study Design: Systematic review and meta-analysis.

53

Methods: Randomised controlled trials (RCTs) were identified from a systematic search of Medline, Embase and CINAHL databases. Patients aged 18 or over with full-thickness rotator cuff tear. The primary outcome measure was change of Constant shoulder score from baseline at 52 weeks. A meta-analysis to assess treatment response was calculated using the standardised mean change in scores.

59

Results: We included 57 RCTs. The pooled standardised mean change, compared to baseline was: 1.42 (95% CI 0.80-2.04) at 3 months, 2.73 (95% CI 1.06-4.40) at 6 months and 3.18 (95% CI 1.64-4.71) at 12 months. Graphical plots of treatment response demonstrate a sustained improvement in outcomes in both non-operative trial arms and all operative sub-group arms.

65

Conclusions: Patients with full-thickness rotator cuff tears demonstrated a consistent
pattern of improvement in Constant score with both conservative and operative care.
The natural history of patients with rotator cuff tears included in RCTs is to improve
over time, whether treated operatively or non-operatively.

What is known about the subject: Rotator cuff tears represent the commonest tendon injury in the adult population, however the optimum management of these patients is not known. In other chronic musculoskeletal conditions, it has been shown that there is improvement in clinical outcome measures with all treatments over time. However, it is not known if this is also true for rotator cuff tears.

76

What this study adds to existing knowledge: This review found there is consistent improvement in Constant score, irrespective of intervention given whether it is operative, or non-operative treatments. Patient outcomes at 12 months are highly predictive of outcomes at 24 months, suggesting that 12-month should be used as a primary outcome time point for future randomised controlled trials in full-thickness rotator cuff tears.

MAIN TEXT

84 Introduction

85

Rotator cuff tears are the commonest tendon injury in the adult population, affecting 86 87 approximately 30% of the population above the age of 60⁸². The prevalence 88 increases with age. Risk factors for development include male gender, employment 89 consisting of manual labour and previous trauma ⁹⁶. Whilst many tears are 90 asymptomatic, up to 35% of patients will then progress to develop pain and inability 91 to perform activities of daily living ^{70,95}. For patients with full-thickness rotator cuff 92 tears there is debate about the optimum management, including the use of different operative techniques, operative adjuncts, and non-operative management ^{25,56}. 93 94 Nevertheless, there has been a trend to provide more surgical treatments for these 95 injuries. The number of rotator cuff repairs performed in the UK increased by 238% over 14 years to 2009 ²⁷. 96

97

98 Over recent years there has been a substantial growth in the number of randomised 99 controlled trials and systematic reviews of shoulder treatments ^{38,40,41,66}. However, 100 most studies show, at best, a modest additional improvement in patient reported 101 outcomes over time, with no clear superiority of one treatment modality over the 102 other ^{38,40,41,66}.

103

In other chronic, painful conditions, it has been noted that outcomes improve over time in patients in randomised trials, regardless of their treatment ^{3,4,90}. This may be due to the natural history of chronic musculoskeletal conditions, regression to the mean or other unrecognised mechanisms. As a result, it presents a challenge for the interpretation of outcomes in studies of patients with rotator cuff tears. Randomised trials are a good source of information on the natural history of a condition because

they have well defined entry criteria, are prospective by definition, and typically have well defined follow-up time points. In addition, the natural history of patients with rotator cuff pathologies in randomised controlled trials needs to be better understood to improve the planning and conduct of further trials in this area.

114

- 116 Aims: To assess the outcomes and trajectories over time amongst patients with full-
- 117 thickness rotator cuff tears in randomised clinical trials.

118	Methods
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120 This study was reported in accordance with the PRISMA statement for reporting 121 systematic reviews. The systematic review protocol was pre-defined and can be 122 found at http://www.crd.york.ac.uk/PROSPERO (CRD42016047715).

123

124 Inclusion Criteria

125

Inclusion criteria were: (i) full text, randomised controlled trials in English language,
(ii) any humans of any age with isolated full thickness rotator cuff tears, (iii) studies
comparing both operative and non-operative interventions and (iv) reporting clinical
outcome measures chosen for this review were included.

130

131 Exclusion Criteria

132

Exclusion criteria were: (i) non-randomised studies, (ii) studies reporting
biomechanical and radiological outcomes, (iii) studies not reporting clinical outcomes
selected for this review and (iv) abstract publication only.

136

Studies including patients with partial-thickness tears or examining treatments forshoulder disorders other than full-thickness tears were also excluded.

139

140 Up to three attempts were made to contact the corresponding author for additional 141 information if; (i) further information was required about study design to confirm 142 inclusion, (ii) there were missing data for unreported or partially unreported outcomes 143 or (iii) outcomes were for the full-thickness sub-population where the study 144 population was mixed (full thickness and other pathologies).

146 Outcome measures

147

The primary outcome measure was the Constant shoulder score ²⁰ at 52 weeks. The Constant score is the most widely used shoulder evaluation score in Europe ⁵¹ and has been described as the most efficient outcome measure for patients with rotator cuff tears ⁶¹. It is a composite core measuring a combination of physical examination and subjective assessments from the patient.

153

The secondary outcome measures included: (i) the American Shoulder and Elbow Score (ASES) ⁸³ at all time points, (ii) the University California-Los Angeles (UCLA) ² score at all time points, (iii) the Disabilities of the Arm, Shoulder and Hand (DASH) ³⁹ and (iv) Constant score (including modifications of the Constant score) ²⁰ at all time points.

159

160 Search Strategy and quality assessment

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162 We searched Medline, Embase, The Cochrane central register of controlled trials and CINAHL databases from inception to 14th September 2016 and imported 163 164 citations into EndNote X7 (New York, USA) reference management software. A full 165 search strategy can be found in the supplementary material. Following removal of 166 duplicates, citations were screened using title and abstract with the inclusion criteria 167 described above applied. To reduce the risk of publication bias, if multiple studies 168 reported the same, or an overlapping population, only the study with the longest follow up was included. For those studies that potentially met eligibility criteria, full 169 170 texts were obtained. Two authors (CK & IA) independently assessed each paper, 171 with any discrepancies being resolved with discussion with the senior authors (NS & AM). 172

We did a qualitative risk of bias assessment using Cochrane guidelines ³⁷. Where the main paper did not include sufficient information to complete risk of bias assessment any published protocols were also examined.

177

178 Statistical analysis

179

We extracted outcome data from each study according to follow up time period. As there was often a wide heterogeneity in follow up time points, the exact time point was recorded, even if different for study arms. As performed in a similar metaanalysis by Artus et al. ³, we developed a data analysis plan, including a descriptive analysis, assessment of the variation of size of response and finally the overall pattern of response prior to data extraction.

186

187 *Extracting data*

188

189 We extracted the number of patients in each arm, the intervention type for each arm, 190 which was defined as repair, acromioplasty alone or conservative. In addition, the 191 mean and standard deviation (SD) of Constant score (standard and modified), 192 gender, dominant hand and the time point assessed were extracted for each study. If 193 a study did not report one of these statistics, then estimates of missing values were 194 calculated from other reported values, such as the test statistic or p-value using standard methods as described in the Cochrane Handbook ³⁴. Where data in studies 195 196 was not represented in numerical format, data were extracted from graphs by two authors (CK & IA) to improve accuracy of data. 197

198

199 Assessing the general response of treatment

201 Outcome scores were graphically plotted against time using Microsoft Excel 202 (Microsoft Excel for Mac 2011, Washington, USA) to describe change from baseline 203 to all follow up points reported in all treatment arms from included studies. Data were 204 explored visually for a descriptive analysis of response. As a visual response trend 205 was required, studies using modified versions of Constant score were included.

206

207 Assessing variation of size of response

208

209 To determine variation in size of response we analysed the change in outcome score 210 by calculating the bias-corrected standardised mean change (SMC) at three, six, 12 211 and 24 months). This technique is used frequently when studies report efficacy in 212 terms of a continuous measurement. For example, it could be used when comparing the outcome of a new analgesic drug using visual analogue pain scales as an 213 214 outcome, comparing intervention and placebo. The SMC could be interpreted as the 215 'standardised' measure of outcome, where (assuming high scores denote more 216 severe pain) if there were no difference between the interventions, the SMC would 217 be zero, whilst a negative SMC would represent a reduction in pain. The SMC score 218 is calculated by subtracting the follow up mean score in chosen outcome measure 219 from the baseline mean score. This is then divided by its pooled SD, multiplied by a 220 bias correction factor based on the group size ⁷¹. If the pooled SD was not reported, 221 the baseline SD was used, or the SD at follow up. Estimates of the variance of the SMC were also calculated ⁷² and used to construct 95% confidence intervals. To 222 223 allow for the repeated measures design, the within-group correlation was set at 0.5 224 for all studies ¹⁷.

225

226 Summarising the overall response to treatment

228 As the SMC standardises the measurement of change over time, studies using 229 slightly different scales can be pooled together for comparison. As such, studies 230 using modified or adjusted Constant scores were combined alongside those that reported unmodified scales. As for similar meta-analyses ³, one arm was then 231 232 randomly selected per trial. This was because changes in outcome over time were of 233 interest, rather than between arms comparison (e.g. to demonstrate superiority of 234 one type of intervention). Intervention arms from each study are likely to be further 235 correlated since participants recruited to each trial are likely to have similar 236 characteristics and therefore have a similar response to treatment, which means that 237 observations from different study arms would not be independent. Furthermore, the 238 objective of this review was to describe the effect of treatments and not to estimate 239 effect sizes between intervention groups.

240

241 We calculated a combined pooled estimate of SMC for each time point using a 242 random effects model. Studies were subcategorised according to treatment given to: 243 (i) where primary repair was performed (ii) where acromioplasty was performed only 244 iii) conservative (non-operative) treatment. If patients had a primary repair and 245 another treatment adjunct was applied (such as the application of platelet rich protein 246 or acromioplasty) the study arm was allocated to repair group. We did a simple 247 correlation analysis (using Pearson's correlation coefficient) on the SMCs between 248 each time point to assess the relationship between each subsequent time point.

249

250 Analyses were conducted in R (Vienna, Austria)⁸⁰ and using the metafor package⁹².

252 **Results**

253

A total of 1033 citations were received from our search strategy. After removal of duplicates and screening of studies by title and abstract, 100 full text papers were retrieved. Out of these, 57 studies met our inclusion criteria from which 43 studies used the Constant score as an outcome measure (Figure 1). Of the 57 studies selected, 14 study authors were contacted for further information, however no responses were received.





261

262 Description of studies included

263

With respect to studies reporting the Constant score; there were 39 studies with 73 arms that described treatment response for operative interventions of which eight studies with eight arms had repair and acromioplasty performed; two studies with two arms for acromioplasty only; five studies with seven arms were described for nonoperative interventions. 26 studies with 53 arms reported the ASES score; 20 studies with 40 treatment arms reported the UCLA score. The DASH was the least frequently
reported score, with seven studies reporting 14 different treatment arms. A
description of included studies is available in Table 1.

272

273 Description of patient population included

274

We included data from 4542 participants in this review, with study populations ranging from a minimum of 20 to 248 patients. Within the included studies, eight did not report gender. Of those that did report gender of patients included, 48% of participants were male. Four studies out of 57 did not report age; in those that did, the median of the mean reported age of participants was 59.0 (IQR 5.3). Of those studies included, 27 did not report dominant hand of included patients. From those studies reporting, 71% of participants had a full-thickness tear of their dominant side.

282

283 Risk of bias assessment

284

Studies included in this review had a low risk of bias for all domains apart from blinding of participants and personal (performance bias); 42% (24/57) of studies had a low risk of performance bias: 47% (27/57) of studies had an unclear risk of bias (Figure 2).

289 Figure 2: Summary Table of Risk of Bias Assessment for Studies Included





293 There was an overall improvement in all arms from baseline for studies reporting 294 Constant score (Figure 3). When exploring differences between operative and non-295 operative arms, this effect was sustained, with all study arms showing positive 296 change. Treatment response in all outcome measures (ASES, UCLA and DASH) 297 showed an improvement in functional outcomes regardless of treatment intervention 298 applied (Figure 4). Studies that followed up patients at multiple time points indicate 299 an improvement in outcome in the first 12 months, following which the rate of 300 improvement stabilised. This pattern was consistent irrespective of treatment type given (primary repair, acromioplasty only, or non-operative intervention). 301

Figure 3: Change in Constant score for all operative and non-operative interventions
over time (includes modified Constant score)











311 312

Summary of responses to treatments

313

A forest plot describing the pooled SMC from baseline for all sampled treatment arms was produced for the Constant Score (Figure 5). This showed a large pooled treatment response at 3 months (1.42 [95% CI 0.80-2.04]) and at 6 months (2.73 [95% CI 1.06-4.40]). The largest change was seen at 12 months (3.18 [95% CI 1.64-4.71], which then reduced slightly at 24 months (2.98 [95% CI 1.40-4.55]). **Figure 5:** SMC for Constant score for one arm randomly selected from each trial arm

320 at 3, 6, 12 and 24 months.

Figure 5: SMC for Constant score for one arm randomly selected from each trial arm at 3, 6, 12 and 24 months.



322

In the sub-group analysis, the greatest effects were seen in patients undergoing rotator cuff repair, although a meta-analysis of papers directly comparing the two was not performed and therefore this should not be taken as direct evidence of benefit for repair. Trends in the effects followed the same pattern as observed in the main analysis, with the largest effects observed at 12 months with a SMC of 3.65 (95% CI 1.74-5.56) for patients undergoing repair compared to 1.78 (95% CI 1.10-2.46) for conservative and 0.27 (95% CI 0.01-0.53) for acromioplasty patients.

330

There was strong correlation in SMCs for each time point, which increased as the studies progressed. The Pearson's correlation coefficients were 0.816 (n=11, 95% Cl 0.424 to 0.951) between 3 months and 6 months, 0.987 (n=13, 95% Cl 0.957 to 0.996) between 6 months and 12 months and 0.999 (n=9, 95% Cl 0.996 to 1.00) between 12 months and 24 months.

337 **Discussion**

338

339 We aimed to collate the evidence on the short-term natural history of patients with symptomatic full-thickness rotator cuff tears, regardless of the treatment they 340 341 received. The studies included in this review examined a wide variety of treatment 342 modalities, including a variety of operative techniques as well as non-operative 343 interventions. This review found that treatment response follows a similar pattern of 344 rapid improvement in the first 12 months after an intervention, after which the 345 recovery plateaus. This pattern was found in all treatment arms irrespective of 346 intervention applied, including either surgical or non-surgical care.

347

348 Whilst assessing the natural history of a condition using randomised trial data alone 349 may seem counter-intuitive, there are a number of good reasons for doing so. 350 Randomised trials typically have well organised follow-up arrangements at fixed time 351 periods from randomisation, which are usually pre-defined. By definition, they are 352 prospective studies in well-defined populations. A well-constructed cohort study can 353 achieve all of these things but this is harder to detect and assess when reviewing a 354 paper, and many cohort studies suffer from being conducted with cross-sectional 355 sampling, meaning that follow-up times vary considerably from the intervention. This 356 may be valuable in a long-term follow up study, but the purpose of this study was to 357 examine short to medium-term outcomes (that is, in the first few months and years 358 after the intervention) and as such, randomised trials provide a wealth of prospective 359 data with fixed time points for follow up.

360

In determining an explanation for the patterns that were observed, consideration must be given to the natural history of rotator cuff tears. Previously conducted systematic reviews have commented on the scarcity of studies investigating the topic ²⁶. A cohort study by Safran and colleagues assessing the natural history in 365 symptomatic, full-thickness rotator cuff tears who were treated non-operatively found 366 that patients often had progression in tear size which was linked to a deterioration in 367 pain ⁸⁶. This is different to our findings, where we found non-operatively treated patients improve in outcome measures. In the above study, it is not explained why 368 369 their cohort was treated non-operatively, as perhaps these patients may have been 370 unsuitable for operative intervention. On comparison, in half of the studies included in 371 this review with a non-operative arm, participants would have been suitable for an 372 operative intervention. In addition, people included in studies with only non-operative 373 arms may not have had significant disability to seek operative intervention. As such 374 this may represent two different sub-sections of the population.

375

376 Moosmayer found that patients with asymptomatic rotator cuff tears often progressed 377 to become symptomatic, representing a structural deterioration of the rotator cuff ⁷⁰. 378 However, this patient cohort differs from those entered into randomised controlled 379 trials, as asymptomatic patients are unlikely to actively seek healthcare. In contrast, 380 patients seeking surgical treatment are likely to represent a sub-section of the 381 population with the worst symptoms, leading to lower baseline outcome scores. As 382 such, these patients also represent those who have the potential for larger reductions 383 in symptoms and therefore the greatest treatment response.

384

385 The phenomenon of regression to the mean is a ubiquitous statistical occurrence in 386 repeated data. This suggests that if a variable is extreme on its first measurement, it 387 will tend to be closer to the population mean on subsequent measurements ⁷³. In other words, if a patient's pain varies, they will typically see a specialist and be 388 389 entered for treatment (or into a study) when the pain is at its peak, and in future 390 measurements it will be reduced as the pain then falls from that previous peak. As 391 such, patients with worse baseline outcome measures represent those with greater 392 potential to improve due to regression to the mean. Equally, it may be that patients

393 who present with pain and symptoms will recover with time and patient care, as 394 implied by these studies where there is a large effect and regression to the mean 395 may seem to be unlikely. In reality, it is difficult to separate the effects of regression 396 to the mean from the true natural history of full-thickness tears.

397

398 Thought must also be given to non-specific factors for change in outcomes. Indeed, 399 there is evidence to suggest participation in randomised controlled trials may itself confer benefit to patients ¹³. This effect is particularly seen in situations where 400 effective treatments are included in the trial protocol ¹³, such as for many studies 401 included in this review. Other factors, such as trust in health care professional 402 403 delivering treatment ¹⁰ and the manner in which patients expectations for treatment 404 response is enhanced by positive information ¹¹ all significantly contribute to the 405 improvement of health outcomes. In addition, attributes from the patient including 406 their expectation, emotions and psychological conditioning have been found to be of positive influence ^{52,79}. Perhaps the best recognised is the role of the placebo in 407 408 influencing outcomes. Whilst its influence within drug trials is well established, there 409 is evidence for its use as an effective treatment in other chronic musculoskeletal 410 conditions ⁹⁷. Furthermore, the placebo can be augmented with previously mentioned factors such as clinician warmth ⁴⁵. Again it is difficult to estimate the effect of these 411 412 factors into the trials included in this study.

413

One other consideration is the timing of outcomes in randomised studies. It is common for reviewers to insist on 24-month outcomes, however we found that they add little value beyond 12 months. After 12 months in all treatment arms, the improvement stabilised, and correlations in scores at different time points were very high. In other words, once the 12-month outcomes were known then the 24-month outcomes were highly predictable. We recommend a 12-month primary outcome based on our findings. This has important implications in the delivery of randomised trials, which are often expensive and time consuming, and reporting at 12 rather then 24 months would save substantial cost as well as time in producing an answer that can be delivered to improved clinical care for patients, whereas waiting for a 24 month follow-up adds little. This is not to say that later follow-up (say, five or ten year) does not add different or valuable information, but in terms of short to mediumterm outcomes, a primary outcome at 12 months can be recommended based on our findings.

428

Surgical treatments may be effective, although their true effect over non-operative 429 430 treatment is likely to be much less than the effect that seen in uncontrolled case-431 series. Our data show that such an improvement may also be seen with conservative 432 treatments. The overall effect of surgery can only be assessed by comparing surgery 433 to conservative treatment, and consideration should also be given sham or placebo controlled trials of surgery ^{31,94}. When assessing the results of surgical procedures, 434 435 and surgeons should be aware of the natural history of symptomatic cuff tears in the 436 short term to improve substantially with conservative care alone when they assess 437 the result of other treatments or procedures.

438

439 Strengths and Limitations

440

This study was conducted and reported in accordance with the PRISMA guidelines
 ⁶⁷. It was conducted with a pre-defined and published study protocol.

443

We used the Constant score as its primary outcome measure. It is the most widely used assessment tool ⁵¹ and was the most frequently outcome measure in studies included in this review thus giving the greatest volume of data to pool. Other measures used in this review including ASES, UCLA score and the DASH score were next commonly reported and thus represented an appropriate secondary outcome measures. A small number of trials used other measures such as change in
visual analogue score, or purely radiological outcome measures, which were
therefore not included. As these were so infrequently reported and varied in their
definitions, any meaningful pooling of this data would not have been possible.

453

454 Only trials with fully published outcome measures were included. Thus, there is a risk 455 of publication bias from studies with incomplete outcome data, which were excluded 456 from the study analysis. In line with Cochrane guidelines, authors of the papers were 457 contacted with reasonable efforts in order to minimise this. A further limitation is that 458 only English language studies were included. However, this results in only two 459 studies being excluded and those that were included were from a wide distribution 460 geographically. The large number of included studies showing consistent results 461 suggests is unlikely that our conclusions would be changed if any other such studies 462 had been included.

463

464 This study has not been designed as a meta-analysis to directly compare rotator cuff 465 repair, acromioplasty or physiotherapy, and rather is a description of the natural 466 history of each treatment. Conclusions on the relative merits of the treatments should 467 not be directly inferred from these findings. Different studies are included which may 468 have had different populations in them. An example of this is the apparent worse 469 performance of acromioplasty relative to repair or conservative care. Whilst the study 470 did adjust for baseline scores, the different studies are not necessarily the same 471 population of patients or types of tear, so care should be taken in over-interpreting 472 our findings. However, it makes an important statement about the likely outcome of patients with symptomatic cuff tears over time, and this needs to be considered when 473 474 interventions such as surgery are being considered, or when other treatments are 475 being evaluated.

We did not assess the long-term outcomes of these patients. Certainly, it is established that massive rotator cuff tears can lead to the development of rotator cuff arthropathy ²⁴. This may then result in a deterioration of outcomes and there is evidence to suggest early repair of rotator cuff tears can prevent progression into rotator cuff arthropathy ^{19,74}. Unfortunately long term outcomes were beyond the scope of this review as it was based on trial data, which typically does not extend long enough to assess long-term outcomes.

484 **Conclusions**

485

We have shown that patients with symptomatic full-thickness rotator cuff tears demonstrate a consistent and considerable response to treatment, even with conservative management. The largest improvement occurs in the first 12 months, after which the response stabilises. When assessing the treatment effect of invasive surgery, consideration must be given to the natural history of patients with rotator cuff tears to improve over time with non-operative care as well.

493

494 Funding

495

496 There was no funding allocated for this systematic review.

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Author	Year published	Comparison	Participants (n)	Male (n)	Female (n)	Age	Dominant side (n)	Non dominant side (n)
Abrams et	2014	Repair vs. Repair &	114	64	50	58.8		
Aydin et al. ⁵	2010	Single vs. Double Row Repair	68	(50.1%)	(43.976)	58.0		
Barber et al. 91	2016	Single <i>vs</i> . Double Row Repair	40	24 (60.0%)	16 (40.0%)	56.0	33	7
Barber et al.	2012	Repair <i>vs</i> . Repair & Human Dermal Matrix	42	31 (73.8%)) 11 (26.2%)	56.0		
Berth <i>et al.</i> ⁷	2010	Partial Repair <i>vs</i> . Debridement & Acromioplasty	42	31 (73.8%)) 11 (26.2%)	63.4	29	13
Bidwai et al. ⁸	2016	Mini-Open Repair <i>vs.</i> Acromioplasty	33	26 (78.8%)	7 (21.1%)	67.7		
Bigoni <i>et al.</i> 9	2009	Side-to-Side Repair <i>vs.</i> Tendon–to–Bone Fixation	50	. ,	. ,	59.0		
Boehm et al. 12	2005	Mason-Allen Suture <i>vs.</i> Kessler Suture	100	68 (68.0%)	32 (32.0%)	56.5		
Bryant <i>et al.</i> 14	2016	Repair & Porcine Small Intestine Mucosa <i>v</i> s. Repair	62	51 (81.3%)	11 (17.7%)	56.6		
Burks <i>et al.</i> ¹⁵	2009	Single vs. Double Row Repair	40	. ,	. ,	56.5		
Carbonel et al. ¹⁶	2012	Single vs. Double Row Repair	160	68 (43.5%)	92 (57.5%)	55.5		
Castricini et	2011	Repair & Platelet Rich Plasma	88	、 40	48	55.3		

Table 1: Study Characteristics

al. ¹⁸		<i>v</i> s. Repair		(45.5%)	(55.5%)			
Cuff et al. 21	2012	Early Physiotherapy <i>vs</i> . Late	68	38	30	63.2		
		Physiotherapy		(55.9%)	(44.1%)			
Dezaly et al.	2011	Repair & Acromioplasty vs.	127	58	69	67.8		
22		Acromioplasty		(45.7%)	(54.3%)			
Duzgun <i>et</i>	2011	Early Rehabilitation vs. Late	29	3	26	56.3		
al. ²³		Rehabilitation		(10.3%)	(89.7%)			
Flurin <i>et al.</i>	2013	Repair <i>v</i> s. Repair &	154	60	94	74.3		
28		Acromioplasty		(39.0%)	(61.0%)			
Franceschi	2007	Single <i>v</i> s. Double Row Repair	60					
et al. ²⁹								
Gartsman <i>et</i>	2004	Repair & Acromioplasty vs.	93	42	51	59.7		
al. ³⁰		Repair		(45.2%)	(55.8%)			
Gialanella et	2011	Steroid Injection vs. Steroid	60	5	55	78.7		
al. ³²		injection vs. No Treatment		(8.3%)	(91.7%)			
		(Control)						
Grasso et	2009	Single <i>vs</i> . Double Row Repair	80	34	46	56.8	56	24
al. ³³				(42.5%)	(57.5%)			
Greiner et	2015	Lateralised Reverse Shoulder	34	12	22	75.4		
al. ³⁵		Arthroplasty vs. Reverse		(35.3%)	(64.7%)			
		Shoulder Arthroplasty						
Gumina <i>et</i>	2012	Repair & Platelet/Leucocyte	80	41	39	61.0	58	22
al. ³⁶		Membrane vs. Single Row		(51.3%)	(48.8%)			
		Repair						
Jacquot et	2014	Arthroplasty & Tenotomy vs.	103	50	53	68.0	75	28
al. 42		Arthroplasty, Tenotomy &		(48.5%)	(51.5%)			
		Tendon Suture						
Jo et al. ⁴³	2013	Repair & Platelet Rich Plasma	48	24	24	63.1	42	6

		<i>v</i> s. Repair		(50.0%)	(50.0%)			
Jo <i>et al.</i> 44	2015	Repair & Platelet Rich Plasma	74	17	57	60.4	57	17
		vs. Repair		(30.0%)	(77.0%)			
Keener <i>et al.</i>	2014	Repair & Traditional	124					
46		Rehabilitation vs. Repair &						
		Immobilisation						
Kim <i>et al.</i> 47	2011	Distal Clavicle Resection vs.	83	40	43	56.9		
		Repair		(48.5%)	(42.5%)			
Kim <i>et al.</i> 48	2012	Repair & Extracorporeal	71	32	39	59.0	40	31
		Shockwave Therapy <i>v</i> s. Repair		(45.1%)	(54.9%)			
Kim et al. 49	2012	Early Passive Motion vs.	105	44	61	60.0	69	36
		Immobilisation		(41.9%)	(58.1%)			
Kim <i>et al.</i> 50	2016	En Masse Repair <i>vs</i> . Double	82	27	55	65.3		
		Layer Repair		(32.9%)	(67.0%)			
Ko <i>et al.</i> 87	2008	Modified Mattress Suture vs.	78			53.2		
		Simple Stitch						
Koh <i>et al.</i> 53	2014	Repair & Four Weeks	100					
		Immobilisation vs. Repair &						
		Eight Weeks Immobilisation						
Krischak et	2013	Occupational Therapy vs.	38	24	14	55.0	24	14
al. ⁵⁴		Home Based Therapy		(63.2%)	(36.8%)			
Kukkonen	2015	Physiotherapy vs.	167	80	87	65.0	111	56
et al. 55		Acromioplasty & Physiotherapy		(47.9%)	(52.1%)			
		vs. Repair, Acromioplasty &						
		Physiotherapy						
Lambers et	2015	Repair <i>v</i> s. Physiotherapy	56	35	21	60.6	46	10
al. 57				(62.5%)	(37.5%)			
Lapner <i>et al.</i>	2012	Single <i>vs.</i> Double Row Repair	90	64	26	56.8	66	24

			(71.1%)	(28.9%)			
2012	Single vs. Double Row Repair	53	29	24	61.2	34	19
			(54.7%)	(45.3%)			
2011	Repair <i>vs.</i> Repair &	86	56	30	56.8		
	Acromioplasty		(65.1%)	(34.9%)			
2014	Repair & Platelet Rich Plasma	54	17	37	54.6	42	12
	<i>vs</i> . Repair		(31.5%)	(68.5%)			
2015	Repair & Tendisulfar vs.	100	55	45	54.3	82	18
	Repair		(55.0%)	(45.0%)			
2010	Metal Anchors vs.	110	66	44	61.6	70	40
	Biodegradable Anchors		(60.0%)	(40.0%)			
2013	Repair & Microfracture vs.	73	41	32	61.8	54	19
	Repair		(51.2%)	(43.8%)			
2008	Mini-open Repair <i>vs</i> . Open	63	42	21	56.6	55	8
	Repair		(66.7%)	(33.3%)			
2014	Repair <i>vs</i> . Physiotherapy	103	73	30	60.0	64	39
			(70.9%)	(29.1%)			
2015	Repair & Electromagnetic	66			62.0		
2013	Repair & Microfracture vs. Repair	57					
2016	Repair & Platelet Rich Plasma	102	74	28	54.0	65	37
	vs. Repair		(72.5%)	(27.5%)			
2013	Repair & Platelet Rich Plasma	53	21	32	60.0	41	12
	vs. Repair		(39.6%)	(43.8%)			
2012	Repair & Platelet Rich Plasma	79	44	35	58.0		
	<i>vs</i> . Repair		(55.7%)	(44.3%)			
2013	Repair & Platelet Related	69	25	44	55.5		
	2012 2011 2014 2015 2010 2013 2008 2014 2015 2013 2013 2016 2013 2012 2013	 2012 Single vs. Double Row Repair 2011 Repair vs. Repair & Acromioplasty 2014 Repair & Platelet Rich Plasma vs. Repair 2015 Repair & Tendisulfar vs. Repair 2010 Metal Anchors vs. Biodegradable Anchors 2013 Repair & Microfracture vs. Repair 2008 Mini-open Repair vs. Open Repair 2014 Repair vs. Physiotherapy 2015 Repair & Electromagnetic Fields vs. Repair 2013 Repair & Microfracture vs. Repair 2014 Repair & Sepair 2015 Repair & Electromagnetic Fields vs. Repair 2016 Repair & Platelet Rich Plasma vs. Repair 2013 Repair & Platelet Rich Plasma vs. Repair 2012 Repair & Platelet Rich Plasma vs. Repair 2013 Repair & Platelet Rich Plasma 	2012Single vs. Double Row Repair532011Repair vs. Repair &86 Acromioplasty86 Acromioplasty2014Repair & Platelet Rich Plasma54 vs. Repair2015Repair & Tendisulfar vs.100 Repair2010Metal Anchors vs.110Biodegradable Anchors73 Repair2013Repair & Microfracture vs.73 Repair2008Mini-open Repair vs. Open63 Repair2014Repair vs. Physiotherapy1032015Repair & Electromagnetic Fields vs. Repair66 Fields vs. Repair2016Repair & Microfracture vs.57 Repair2016Repair & Platelet Rich Plasma102 vs. Repair2013Repair & Platelet Rich Plasma53 vs. Repair2013Repair & Platelet Rich Plasma79 vs. Repair2013Repair & Platelet Rich Plasma79 vs. Repair2013Repair & Platelet Rich Plasma69	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $

et al. ⁸⁵		Growth Factor vs. Repair		(36.2%)	(63.8%)			
Shibata <i>et</i>	2001	Sodium Hyaluronate Injection	78	55	23	61.5	50	28
al. ⁸⁸		vs. Steroid Injection		(70.5%)	(29.5%)			
Shin <i>et al.</i> ⁸⁹	2012	Repair & Acromioplasty vs.	120	67	53	56.8	87	33
		Repair		(55.8%)	(44.2%)			
van der	2013	Arthroscopic Repair <i>v</i> s. Mini –	95	57	38	57.6	72	23
Zwaal e <i>t al.</i>		Open Repair		(60.0%)	(40.0%)			
77								
Wang <i>et al.</i>	2015	Single <i>v</i> s. Double Row Repair	248	67	95	58.0	79	88
93				(27.0%)	(38.3%)			
Zhang <i>et al.</i>	2014	Mini-Open Repair <i>vs.</i>	108	55	53	54.1	84	24
98		Arthroscopic Repair		(50.9%)	(49.0%)			
Zumstein <i>et</i>	2015	Repair & Platelet Rich Plasma	20	10	10	63.9	18	2
al. ⁹⁹		<i>v</i> s. Repair		(50.0%)	(50.0%)			