

1 **Should We Avoid Shoulder Surgery In Wheelchair Users?: A Systematic Review of**
2 **Outcomes and Complications**

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20 **Abstract**

21 **Introduction**

22 The prevalence of shoulder pathology in wheelchair dependent patients is high. The shoulder
23 joint is critical for maintaining independence but traditionally there has been reluctance to
24 offer surgical intervention in view of perceived poor outcomes. The aim of this study was to
25 provide patients and surgeons with a realistic overview of outcomes following surgical
26 intervention for shoulder pathology.

27

28 **Methods**

29 A systematic review of the online databases Medline and EMBASE was performed in
30 September 2017. Studies reporting functional outcomes, complications or rate of revision
31 surgery after shoulder surgery in patients' dependent on wheelchair for mobility were
32 included. A narrative synthesis of the studies and appraisal using the MINORS tool was
33 performed.

34

35 **Results**

36 The search strategy identified 11 eligible studies; 7 assessed rotator cuff repair and 4 shoulder
37 arthroplasty. Six of the seven studies reporting on rotator cuff repairs demonstrated
38 improvement in pain, range of motion and functional outcomes with a re-tear rate between
39 12% and 39%. Although total shoulder arthroplasty and hemiarthroplasty reportedly
40 improved pain and function, the subsequent risk of rotator cuff failure was reported up to

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41 100%. The two studies assessing reverse arthroplasty demonstrated significant improvement
42 in function and pain with the largest series reporting a 15.8% failure rate.

43

44 **Conclusion**

45 Rotator cuff repairs and reverse shoulder arthroplasties performed in wheelchair users are
46 associated with significant functional improvement and a slightly higher complication profile
47 to those performed in ambulatory patients. This review provides a resource to aid surgeons
48 and patients in holding realistic expectations following shoulder surgery in wheelchair users.

49

50

51 **Keywords**

52 Shoulder

53 Rotator cuff

54 Shoulder arthroplasty

55 Wheelchair user

56 Wheelchair dependence

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58

59

60 **Introduction**

61 Shoulder pathology in wheelchair dependent patients is very common. The prevalence of
62 pain and restricted movement in this population is reported to occur in 33% to 62% of
63 individuals [1, 2]. The high prevalence of shoulder complaints is thought to be due to the
64 overuse of the glenohumeral joint [1] especially during propulsion and transfers [3-6]. A
65 biomechanical study demonstrated that the vertical forces acting on the shoulder increase by
66 more than 360% during these movements [3]. This upward force is likely to cause increased
67 strain on the rotator cuff tendons with subsequent risk of degeneration and injury. This may
68 explain the reported four-fold higher incidence of rotator cuff lesions in wheelchair users
69 (63% vs 15%) compared to ambulatory individuals [7]. Akbar et al. reported that rotator cuff
70 tears were present in 49% of wheelchair users of which 70% were full thickness and all
71 involved the supraspinatus [8]. Risk factors for developing tears were found to be patient age
72 and period of wheelchair dependence [8], the prevalence increased from 30% to 50% at five
73 years to 70% at 20 years [9, 10].

74 Shoulder function is critical for wheelchair users to maintain independence. Even in those
75 who use electric chairs it remains important for weight-bearing during transfers [5]. The loss
76 of shoulder function can lead to decline in mood and social integration [11], even small
77 improvements to range of motion have been found to return patients to key activities of daily
78 living [12]. This reliance on the shoulder may explain the high expectations that wheelchair
79 users have from surgery [13]. However traditionally there has been a reluctance of surgeons
80 to offer intervention in view of the prolonged immobilisation, the perceived poor outcomes
81 and the loss of independence that can occur as a result of prolonged post-operative
82 immobilisation [1, 14, 15]. The aim of this systematic review was to determine whether the
83 traditional reluctance to avoid shoulder surgery in wheelchair users is supported by the

84 available evidence specifically relating to functional outcomes, complications and the rate of
85 revision surgery following common shoulder procedures.

86

87

88 **Methods**

89 A systematic review of the literature was conducted in accordance with the PRISMA guidelines
90 (see Table 1) [16] using the online databases Medline and EMBASE. The review was registered
91 on the PROSPERO database on 10th September 2017. The searches were performed
92 independently by two authors on 18th February 2018 and repeated on 20th February 2018 to
93 ensure accuracy. Any discrepancies were resolved through discussion between these two
94 authors, with the senior author resolving any residual differences. The EMBASE search
95 strategy is illustrated in Table 2. Keywords used during the search included; “shoulder”,
96 “glenohumeral joint”, “acromioclavicular joint”, “rotator cuff injury”, “arthroscopic surgery”,
97 “arthroscopy”, “weight bearing shoulder” and “wheelchair.” A flow chart of the search strategy
98 is shown in Figure 1.

99 Only studies that were published in English were considered for eligibility. Both cases series
100 and comparative studies reporting outcomes of any surgical procedure for shoulder pathology
101 in patients’ dependent on wheelchair for mobility were included. Studies reporting only the
102 incidence or causes of shoulder pathology in these patients were excluded. The study must have
103 reported functional outcomes, complications or the rate of revision surgery to be eligible for
104 inclusion. In addition, only primary research was considered for review with any abstracts,
105 comments, review articles and technique articles excluded. The search strategy identified 11

106 studies eligible for inclusion; 7 studies assessed rotator cuff repair and subacromial
107 decompression surgery [13-15, 18-21] and 4 studies assessed shoulder arthroplasty [22-25].

108 Data from the included studies was extracted and analysed according to surgical intervention;
109 rotator cuff repair and shoulder arthroplasty. Mean improvements in functional scores and rates
110 of complications, re-tears and revision surgery were presented. Only data included in the
111 published articles were included in the review. Due to study heterogeneity only a narrative
112 synthesis was performed; neither sub-group nor a meta-analysis was performed. The studies
113 were appraised independently by two authors using the Methodological index for non-
114 randomised studies (MINORS) tool [17], however formal evaluation of study bias was not
115 undertaken.

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117

118 **Results**

119 The total number of participants in all studies was 170; subacromial decompression and
120 rotator cuff studies (n=138) and shoulder arthroplasty case series (n=32). Concise details of
121 the included studies are given in Tables 3 and 4 which also summarise the outcomes of
122 surgery.

123

124 **Rotator cuff repair**

125 Kerr et al. performed the largest case series and reported results following arthroscopic
126 rotator cuff repair [20]. Of the 61 patients who underwent surgery 79% were paraplegic
127 secondary to a spinal cord injury. Postoperatively patients were restricted to 6 weeks of

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128 passive movement and the use of an electric wheelchair, strengthening exercises commenced
129 at 12 weeks. A mean functional improvement was seen at a mean of 46 months follow up;
130 ASES from 56 to 92 and Constant score 50 to 80. All patients underwent an USS during
131 follow up and a re-tear was demonstrated in 39% of cases, of these 61% were full thickness
132 and 28% required revision surgery. Although the study had some limitations including being
133 a single centre study and having a 24% loss to follow up. It provided the only series to assess
134 solely arthroscopic repair and contained a high volume of patients over the five-year study
135 period.

136 Jung et al. reported the outcomes of 16 patients undergoing an open rotator cuff repair in
137 addition to either an open or arthroscopic subacromial decompression over a 17-year study
138 period [19]. Patients were restricted to passive motion for four weeks before commencing
139 active motion at 6 weeks. The most common causes of paraplegia were poliomyelitis (60%)
140 and spinal cord injury (27%). The authors reported a significant increase in functional scores
141 at mean of 32 months; ASES 53 to 85 ($p<0.001$) and Constant score 48 to 75 ($p<0.001$).
142 Patients had either an MRI or USS at one year when 2 patients were found to have a re-tear
143 (12%); further imaging at final follow up was not available.

144 Popowitz et al. studied 8 patients undergoing rotator cuff repair following spinal cord injuries
145 over a six year period, restricting patients to passive motion for the first 6 weeks
146 postoperatively [21]. A mean improvement in ASES (34 to 84) was demonstrated at a mean
147 of 40 months, in addition forward flexion (133 to 167), abduction (147 to 168) and external
148 rotation (62 to 66) all improved. The authors gave further details of only 3 cases, one case
149 suffered a re-tear of the supraspinatus at 12 months but exact details of re-tear rates were not
150 reported.

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151 Hanada et al. reported the outcome from open rotator cuff repair in four shoulders of patients
152 with poliomyelitis using a postoperative regime of passive motion and avoiding transfers for
153 the first 8 weeks [18]. The authors demonstrated improvement in pain and range of motion in
154 75% of the patients; one patient suffered a re-tear at two years and although underwent a
155 subsequent superior capsular reconstruction remained in severe pain and had reduced motion
156 at final follow up.

157 Robinson et al. reported six cases of shoulder impingement in patients with spinal cord
158 injuries [15]. All six underwent open subacromial decompression and four patients underwent
159 simultaneous open rotator cuff repair. Rehabilitation varied from 1 to 3 weeks of passive
160 movement. Patients were followed up for between 1 and 2 years in which time the mean
161 range of motion had improved (flexion 40°, abduction 25° and external rotation 60°). The
162 mean time for patients to be pain free was eight weeks, all patients returned to independence
163 but the re-tear rate was not reported.

164 Fattal et al. performed a prospective case series of 38 shoulders who had various surgical
165 interventions for shoulder pathology after a spinal cord injury and compared them against 25
166 shoulders who had been managed non-operatively [13]. 87% of procedures were performed
167 arthroscopically and these included 20 rotator cuff repairs, 37 subacromial decompressions
168 and 18 biceps tenodesis. Postoperative rehabilitation varied between cases and the exact
169 details of postoperative restrictions were not given. The authors concluded that postoperative
170 results demonstrated functional stability and satisfaction in terms of pain relief. The mean
171 pain intensity at rest and during daily movements was lower after surgery 0 +/- 1.3 (range 0
172 to 6) and 2 +/- 2.2 (range 0 to 7) compared to non-operative treatment 1.8 +/- 2 (range 0 to 6)
173 and 5.1 +/- 2.9 (range 0 to 8) respectively. Satisfactory resistance in supraspinatus (100% vs
174 55%) and infraspinatus (100% vs 77%) were higher in the operative group, although the
175 definition of what quantified satisfactory resistance is not clearly defined. Those undergoing

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176 rotator cuff repair had a mean satisfaction index of 8.5 (range 0 to 10). The decision to
177 perform surgical intervention was made by a multidisciplinary team although further
178 information regarding this process was not supplied. These details are required to know
179 whether only those patients who had failed non-operative treatment were considered for
180 surgery or if certain conditions were more likely to be managed surgically which would risk
181 the introduction of selection bias. Additional limitations included the number of different
182 surgical procedures reported, the undefined rehabilitation regime, the wide variation in follow
183 up and the lack of a validated functional outcome measure.

184 Goldstein et al. also reported no improvement in pain, ROM and activities of daily living in
185 five patients following open cuff repair but only followed up all of their patients for 10 weeks
186 reporting on only three patients at final follow up [14].

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189 **Shoulder arthroplasty**

190 Hatstrup et al. retrospectively reported on 6 patients (3 poliomyelitis, 1 transverse myelitis, 1
191 spinal bifida and 1 familial spastic paraparesis) undergoing shoulder arthroplasty over a 24-
192 year period [23]. Five patients underwent a total shoulder arthroplasty and the final patient
193 had a stemmed hemiarthroplasty. Patients were restricted to passive motion for 6 weeks and
194 transfers allowed from 8 weeks. At a mean of 84 months the pain had improved in 83% and
195 the majority reported either satisfactory or excellent results. However, during follow up all
196 patients' radiographs demonstrated either superior or anterior translation of the humeral head
197 suggesting all had subsequent rotator cuff tears. In addition, one patient suffered a greater
198 tuberosity fracture requiring revision and a second patient suffered a significant brachial

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199 plexopathy. De Loubresse et al. reported a case series of five patients (4 osteoarthritis and 1
200 avascular necrosis) of whom three had preoperative rotator cuff tears [22]. Four patients
201 underwent a total shoulder arthroplasty and one a hemiarthroplasty, the postoperative
202 rehabilitation regime was not described. Pain and function improved (ASES 28 to 37 and
203 Constant score 30 to 52) but follow up was for only 30 months. Two patients suffered a
204 complication requiring glenoid revision at 2 days and 30 months respectively. In the first
205 case, the postoperative radiographs demonstrated that the glenoid implant locking screws had
206 not been tightened. In the second case, the single cemented glenoid implant migrated at 30
207 months postoperatively causing a sudden and dramatic deterioration in the pain and function
208 of the shoulder. Patients did not undergo USS or MRI scan during follow up period so the
209 subsequent rotator cuff tear rate is unknown.

210 Kemp et al. retrospectively reported on 19 shoulders undergoing reverse arthroplasty with a
211 mean age of 72 years (range 59-84) [24]. 75% were suffering from rotator arthropathy and
212 the remainder from osteoarthritis. Neurological impairment was responsible for wheelchair
213 dependence in half (poliomyelitis and spinal cord injury) with the remainder secondary to
214 lower extremity impairment (severe arthritis or amputation). Patients were treated in a sling
215 for the first 3 weeks post-operatively, then passive motion commenced until 6 weeks and
216 weight-bearing from 12 weeks. Final follow up data was available in 12 patients; patients
217 were followed up for a mean of 40 months and functional scores including Constant and
218 ASES significantly improved ($p < 0.05$). The failure rate was 15.8% with 2 cases of instability
219 and 1 case of glenoid baseplate loosening. In addition, one patient suffered a peri-prosthetic
220 fracture and the rate of notching was 42%. Ueblacker et al. reported a patient with
221 syringomyelia undergoing bilateral reverse shoulder arthroplasty, postoperatively shoulder
222 movement was restricted for 1 week and then gradually increased [25]. The patient was
223 followed up for 24 months in which time the patients pain resolved, range of motion

224 improved and daily functional score improved from 4/15 to 9/15 on the right and 3/15 to 9/15
225 on the left. Further details of the functional score used are not provided or referenced in the
226 article. At three months one of the glenoid screws in right shoulder had to be changed for
227 loosening but otherwise no other complications were reported.

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230 **Appraisal of the evidence**

231 The eleven studies consisted of 10 case series and one retrospective comparative study thus
232 providing level IV evidence. All studies were appraised using the MINORS criteria (Table 5)
233 which consists of twelve indicators of quality with the mean score for the included studies
234 being 4.7 (range 3 to 6). Aspects of study methodology that were performed consistently well
235 included clear definition of study aim, clear identification of study population, appropriate
236 outcome measures and follow up. These allowed the reviewers to identify relevant studies for
237 inclusion and collate clinically relevant data. However, there were some weaknesses that
238 were consistently identified during the appraisal process. The vast majority of studies lacked
239 a control group which restricted comparison of surgical treatment against results that could be
240 achieved with a non-operative approach. The lack of prospective sample size calculations and
241 adequate statistical testing limited the ability of studies to demonstrate statistically significant
242 results. The failure of the studies to clarify if the assessors were either blinded or independent
243 risks the introduction of assessor bias. These methodological issues need to be considered
244 when interpreting the results.

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248 **Discussion**

249 This systematic review did not find any evidence to support the perception [1, 14, 15] that
250 rotator cuff surgery in wheelchair users is associated with a high incidence of poor outcomes.
251 In contrast, rotator cuff repair in wheelchair users has been shown to improve pain, range of
252 motion and functional outcomes in the short [13, 15] and midterm [18-21]. In addition, the re-
253 tear rate at midterm follow up ranges between 12% and 39% [19, 20]. These figures are
254 comparable to previous studies assessing rotator cuff repair in ambulatory individuals which
255 have shown a re-tear rate from 17% to 46% [16, 26] suggesting that wheelchair users may not
256 be at an increased risk of early re-tear. Three patients were reported to undergo revision
257 rotator cuff repair in all studies during follow up (2.2%). However, the follow up of the
258 studies ranged from 18 to 60 months and it is possible that both the re-tear and revision rates
259 would increase with time due to ongoing weight-bearing through the shoulder.

260 The results of this systematic review also demonstrate that total shoulder arthroplasty and
261 hemiarthroplasty can improve pain and function in wheelchair users [22, 23] but they suggest
262 that the risk of subsequent cuff failure is high. Hattrup et al. [23] reported that all six cases
263 had radiological evidence of cuff failure at follow up. Rotator cuff failure has the potential to
264 reduce function and increases the need for re-intervention although the reviewed studies do
265 not explore the effects of these subsequent cuff failures. Reverse shoulder arthroplasty has
266 been successful in rheumatoid patients who have a similarly high risk of subsequent rotator
267 cuff failure [27]. The concern regarding subsequent rotator cuff failure in wheelchair users
268 makes reverse shoulder arthroplasty an attractive option particularly because the re-operation
269 rate does not appear to be excessive. Kemp et al. reported a 15.8% failure rate in the largest
270 case series at a mean follow-up of 40 months (range 22-66) [24]; this included one baseplate
271 dislocation and two cases of glenohumeral instability although none required revision
272 surgery. This failure rate was comparable to the 15% reported by Farshad et al. in 441 reverse

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273 shoulder arthroplasties performed in an ambulatory population [28]. In addition the two
274 studies reporting reverse shoulder arthroplasty in wheelchair dependent patients demonstrated
275 significant improvement in function and pain [24, 25].

276 Previous authors have suggested that there is a traditional reluctance to offer surgical
277 interventions for wheelchair users with shoulder pathologies [1, 14, 15] as significant
278 restriction in shoulder use will limit patient's independence making them reliant on carers
279 postoperatively. The evidence analysed in this review suggests that wheelchair users can
280 benefit in terms of functional improvement and pain relief with slightly higher complication
281 profiles following rotator cuff repair and reverse shoulder arthroplasty. Therefore, after
282 adequate counselling, patients deemed appropriate should be considered for surgical
283 intervention. This conclusion is in consensus with Fattal et al. who stated that given
284 increasing prevalence of rotator cuff lesions in this population, it is paradoxical to be
285 reluctant to perform shoulder surgery [13]. The period of immobilisation and rehabilitation is
286 an important factor when counselling patients regarding surgical intervention, Fattal et al.
287 reported 28% of patients initially refused surgical intervention with one of the commonest
288 reasons being this fear of increased postoperative dependence [13]. In the studies reviewed
289 the period of passive range of motion varied from 1 to 8 weeks after rotator cuff repair but
290 was more uniform at around 6 weeks after arthroplasty. However, the optimal period of time
291 in which transfers or manual propulsion in wheelchair users should be avoided after surgery
292 has not been studied and remains unknown.

293 The limitations of this systematic review include the overall quality of the included studies.
294 The case series provide only low quality evidence with variation in methodology as
295 demonstrated by the MINOR criteria in Table 5. The numbers of patients included in the
296 reviewed studies is low which is likely to be a result of this being a rare presentation. This is
297 reflected in the long study periods (up to 24 years) and the low numbers reported even in

298 multicentre studies, which risks significant changes to other aspects of practice over time.
299 Given these limitations further high quality studies are required to confirm the conclusions
300 drawn in this systematic review. Future direction for research should compare the outcomes
301 of rotator cuff repair against non-operative treatment, define the optimal period of
302 immobilisation postoperatively for the different surgical interventions and analyse the long-
303 term survival data of reverse shoulder arthroplasty in this cohort of patients.

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307 **Conclusion**

308 Rotator cuff repair in wheelchair users is associated with high satisfaction with pain relief,
309 significant functional improvement and broadly comparable re-tear rates in the midterm to
310 those performed in ambulatory individuals. Total shoulder arthroplasty can improve
311 symptoms but is associated with a high risk of subsequent cuff failure. Reverse shoulder
312 arthroplasty seems to have comparable outcomes and a similar complication profile to those
313 performed for cuff arthropathy in ambulatory patients but long-term follow up data is lacking.

314 This review demonstrates that rotator cuff repair and reverse shoulder arthroplasty in
315 wheelchair dependent patients is associated with good pain relief and improved function
316 without a high complication or re-operation rate. This suggests that the general reluctance to
317 offer wheelchair dependent patients shoulder surgery is unfounded.

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320 **Conflict of Interest and Source of Funding**

321 Professor A Saithna is currently a consultant for Arthrex.

322 Neither author has any additional financial, consultant, institutional and other relationships
323 that might lead to bias or a conflict of interest.

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- 412

413 **Figure 1: Flow diagram of review process**

414

415 **Table 1: PRISMA Checklist**

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417 **Table 2: Search strategy for EMBASE**

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419 **Table 3 – Summary of studies reporting rotator cuff repairs in wheelchair dependent**
420 **patients**

421

422 **Table 4 – Summary of studies reporting shoulder arthroplasty in wheelchair dependent**
423 **patients**

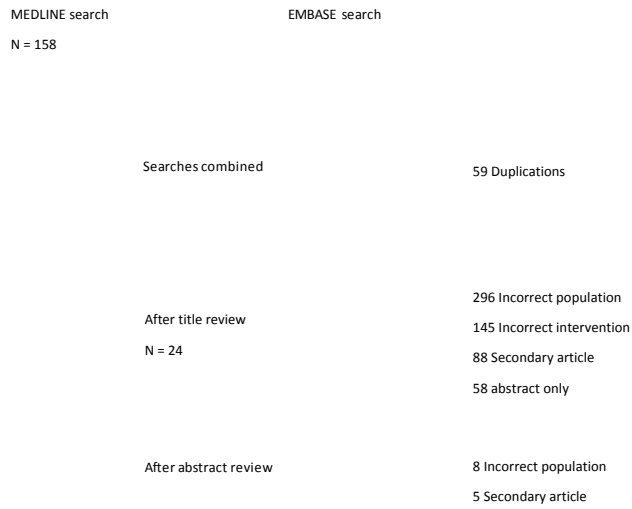
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425 **Table 5: Methodological items for non-randomized studies (MINORS) Scores for**
426 **transtendinous repair case series**

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Figure 1: Flow diagram of review process



428

Table 2: Search strategy for EMBASE

Number	Search term	Results
1	shoulder/ or shoulder.mp	93486
2	glenohumeral joint.mp.	2842
3	acromioclavicular joint/	2202
4	rotator cuff injury/ or rotator cuff/	6883
5	shoulder arthroscopy/ or arthroscopy/	18607
6	manual wheelchair/ or wheelchair/	8754
7	weight-bearing shoulder.mp.	8
8	1 or 2 or 3 or 4 or 5	109353
9	6 or 7	8761
10	1 and 4	522
11	limit 10 to english language	512

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Table 3 – Summary of studies reporting rotator cuff repairs in wheelchair dependent patients

Study	Population	Intervention (s)	Post-op therapy	Follow up	Outcome Measures	Results	Complications
Truman et al. [2008] Retrospective case series	N = 61 Age 55 (27 – 89)	Arthroscopic RCR □ 25% single tendon □ 52% 2 tendons □ 23% 3 tendons 84% biceps tenotomy	6 weeks electric wheelchair and passive 12 weeks strengthening	46 months (24-82)	ASES Constant SSV USS	ASES 56 to 92 Constant 50 to 80 Mean postop SSV score 84%	39% retear □ 11% FT requiring surgery □ 13% FT non-operatively treated □ 15% partial tear
Wang et al. [2010] Retrospective case series	N = 16 Age 61 (44-78) 11 massive, 3 large and 2 medium tears	14 open SAD and RCR 2 arthroscopic SAD and open RCR	8 weeks abduction brace 4 weeks passive 4-6 weeks active assisted 6 weeks active	32 months (13-71)	ASES Constant VAS pain ROM MRI and USS	Improvement □ ASES 53 to 85 □ Constant 48 to 75 □ Flexion 115° to 148° □ ER 21° to 41°	12% re-tear at 12 months, but none required re-intervention
Wang et al. [2011] Retrospective case series	N = 38 Age 54 (28 to 69)	Surgery (20 RCR, 37 SAD, 17 tenodesis) Comparative group non-operatively treated	Varied depending on procedure	18 months (2 to 35)	Pain ROM Functional independence measure (FIM)	Operative vs non-operative groups □ Pain at rest 0 (0-6) vs 1.8 (0 to 6) □ Max pain 1.8 (0-6) vs 5.1 (0-8) □ Supraspinatus strength (100% vs 55% □ Infraspinatus strength (100% vs 77%) Satisfaction of cuff repair 8.8 (0-10)	Not reported
Wang et al. [2012] Retrospective case series	N = 8 Age 48.6 (41-57)	Arthroscopic SAD and mini open RCR	6 weeks passive Active movement from 8 weeks	40 months (12-72)	ASES ROM	ASES 34.1 to 84.3 FF 133° to 167° Abduct 147° to 168° ER 62° to 66°	1 (12.5%) re-tear (3cm) at 12 months managed non-operatively
Wang et al. [2013] Retrospective case series	N = 5 Age 46-72	Open RCR and SAD	6 weeks passive From 6 weeks active ROM	Up to 5 years	ROM Pain Function in ADLs	No improvement in any patient at 10 weeks 3 seen at 5 years no improvement	Not reported
Wang et al. [2014] Retrospective case series	N = 4 Age 52.8 (47-)	Open RCR and SAD 2 large tear	8 weeks passive and avoiding	4.7 yrs (2.5 – 11)	Pain ROM	All had improvement in pain and ROM initially	1 revision at 2 years for re-tear requiring superior capsular

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Table 4 – Summary of studies reporting shoulder arthroplasty in wheelchair dependent patients

Study	Population	Diagnosis and intervention (s)	Post-op therapy	Follow up	Outcome Measures	Results	Complications
Kemp et al. [2014] Retrospective case series	N = 19 Age 72 (59-84)	Reverse arthroplasty	3 weeks sling Passive 3-6 weeks Active from 6 weeks Strengthening and WB 12 weeks	40 months (22-66)	SPADI score Constant score ASES UCLA SST SF12 ROM VAS pain Complications	Significant improvement (p<0.05) ➢ SPADI 58 ➢ Constant 42 ➢ ASES 45 ➢ UCLA 18 ➢ SST 5 ➢ Flexion 44° ➢ ER 29°	15.8% failure rate □ 1 baseplate loosening □ 2 instability □ None required re-intervention Notching 42% 1 periprosthetic fracture 33 months
Hattrup et al. [2013] Retrospective case series	N = 6 Age 69 (54-87)	5 Total shoulder arthroplasty (2 partial, 2 small and 1 large cuff tear) 1 hemiarthroplasty (massive cuff tear)	6 weeks passive 6-8 weeks active assisted From 8 weeks transfers	84 months (24-200)	Complications ROM Neer classification	Pain 67% good relief Flexion 30° and ER 21°	Complications ➢ All had evidence of cuff failure during follow up ➢ 1 greater tuberosity fracture requiring revision ➢ 1 brachial plexopathy
De Loubresse et al. [2012]	N = 5 Age 70	4 total shoulder arthroplasty	Not described	30 months (24-31)	Constant score ASES	Improvement ➢ Constant 30 to	2 complications ➢ 1 loose glenoid

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Should We Avoid Shoulder Surgery In Wheelchair Users?

Table 5: Methodological items for non-randomized studies (MINORS) Scores

	Kerr [20]	Jung [19]	Popowitz [21]	Hanada [18]	Robinson [15]	Fattal [13]	Goldstein [14]	Hattrup [23]	De Loubresse [22]	Kemp [24]	Uebliacker [25]
clearly stated aim	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No
inclusion of consecutive patients	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
endpoints appropriate to aim of the study	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
unbiased assessment of study endpoint	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	No
follow-up period appropriate to the aim of study	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
loss to follow up less than 5%	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
prospective calculation of study size	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No

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Section/topic	#	Checklist item	Reported on page #
TITLE			
Title	1	Identify the report as a systematic review, meta-analysis, or both.	1
ABSTRACT			
Structured summary	2	Provide a structured summary including, as applicable: background; objectives; data sources; study eligibility criteria; participants, and interventions; study appraisal and synthesis methods; results; limitations; conclusions and implications of key findings; systematic review registration number.	2-3
INTRODUCTION			
Rationale	3	Describe the rationale for the review in the context of what is already known.	4
Objectives	4	Provide an explicit statement of questions being addressed with reference to participants, interventions, comparisons, outcomes, and study design (PICOS).	4-5
METHODS			
Protocol and registration	5	Indicate if a review protocol exists, if and where it can be accessed (e.g., Web address), and, if available, provide registration information including registration number.	5
Eligibility criteria	6	Specify study characteristics (e.g., PICOS, length of follow-up) and report characteristics (e.g., years considered, language, publication status) used as criteria for eligibility, giving rationale.	5
Information sources	7	Describe all information sources (e.g., databases with dates of coverage, contact with study authors to identify additional studies) in the search and date last searched.	5
Search	8	Present full electronic search strategy for at least one database, including any limits used, such that it could be repeated.	Table 2
Study selection	9	State the process for selecting studies (i.e., screening, eligibility, included in systematic review, and, if applicable, included in the meta-analysis).	5
Data collection process	10	Describe method of data extraction from reports (e.g., piloted forms, independently, in duplicate) and any processes for obtaining and confirming data from investigators.	5-6
Data items	11	List and define all variables for which data were sought (e.g., PICOS, funding sources) and any assumptions and simplifications made.	5-6
Risk of bias in individual studies	12	Describe methods used for assessing risk of bias of individual studies (including specification of whether this was done at the study or outcome level), and how this information is to be used in any data synthesis.	6
Summary measures	13	State the principal summary measures (e.g., risk ratio, difference in means).	5-6
Synthesis of results	14	Describe the methods of handling data and combining results of studies, if done, including measures of consistency (e.g., I^2) for each meta-analysis.	5-6

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