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**ROTATOR CUFF REPAIR (M TAO AND M TEUSINK, SECTION EDITORS)**

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**Partial and Full-Thickness RCT: Modern Repair Techniques**

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**Abstract**

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**Purpose of Review** The purpose of this article is to review the recent literature concerning modern repair techniques related to partial- and full-thickness rotator cuff tears.

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**Recent Findings** The understanding of rotator cuff pathology and healing continues to evolve, beginning with emerging descriptions of the anatomic footprint and natural history of rotator cuff tears. Significant controversy remains in treatment indications for partial-thickness rotator cuff lesions as well as optimal surgical repair techniques for both partial- and full-thickness tears. Techniques such as margin convergence and reduction of the so-called “comma” tissue have improved the ability to anatomically reduce large and retracted tears. Repair strength and contact pressures are improved with double-row repairs and transosseus-equivalent techniques compared to traditional single-row repairs. Future work is directed towards obtaining reliable radiographic healing and demonstrating clinical superiority and cost-effectiveness of a single technique.

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**Summary** Much recent work regarding rotator cuff anatomy and pathology has been reported. Newer techniques improve repair strength. Despite these advances, significant questions remain concerning surgical indications and clinical outcomes.

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**Keywords** Rotator cuff · Repair · Anatomy · Technique · Review · Outcomes

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**Introduction**

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Rotator cuff tears are a very common musculoskeletal injury and source of disability in the shoulder. Tears are most closely associated with increasing age and estimated to be present in approximately 25% of individuals in their 60s and in 50% of individuals in their 80s [1]. Tear size has been shown to progress over time even in asymptomatic individuals, with larger tears progressing more quickly [2] and correlate with increasing shoulder pain [3, 4]. While previous studies did not find a correlation between enlargement of tears and progression of muscle degeneration, Keener et al., in a more recent prospective study with a larger cohort with longer follow-up, showed that progression of even smaller tears was associated with

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muscle degeneration and atrophy, which may preclude successful surgical repair [4, 5, 6].

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Much of the work the past two decades regarding rotator cuff injury focused on arthroscopic techniques. Today, the vast majority of rotator cuff repairs are performed arthroscopically. Despite significant advances in surgical technique, there continues to be a discord between healing assessed by postoperative ultrasound and/or MRI and patient outcomes, particularly in large and massive tears and in older patients [7]. Some studies have shown that while only about 43% of patients over the age of 65 had evidence of healing at 18 months postoperatively after an arthroscopic full-thickness rotator cuff repair, over 80% had satisfactory clinical results [8, 9]. However, Jost and colleagues showed reduced strength and poorer clinical outcomes in patients with persistent rotator cuff defects compared to structurally intact repairs, and Miller et al. showed that recurrent tears occurring in the early postoperative period were associated with inferior clinical outcomes [10, 11]. This conflict was initially attributed to heterogeneity in repair technique.

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Therefore, improving structural healing rates continues to be a main focus of research in rotator cuff surgery [12]. The past 5 years much work has been done looking at alternative factors that may influence healing and function, including the

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t1.1 **Table 1** Anatomic descriptions  
t1.2 of the supraspinatus and  
infraspinatus footprint

| Study                   | Supraspinatus  |                            | Infraspinatus  |                            |
|-------------------------|----------------|----------------------------|----------------|----------------------------|
|                         | AP length (mm) | Medial-lateral length (mm) | AP length (mm) | Medial-lateral length (mm) |
| Curtis et al. [14]      | 16             | 23                         | 19             | 29                         |
| Dugas et al. [17]       | 16.3           | 12.7                       | 16.4           | 13.4                       |
| Mochizuki et al. [16••] | 12.6           | 6.9                        | 32.7           | 10.2                       |

61 anatomy and vascularity of the rotator cuff, the role of the  
62 subscapularis repair, and modern repair techniques of both  
63 partial-thickness and full-thickness rotator cuff tears. The pur-  
64 pose of this article will be to review the emerging literature  
65 regarding these concepts.

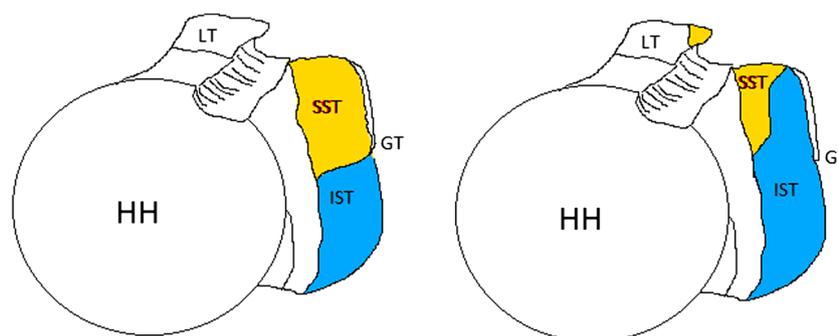
66 **Modern Anatomy**

67 Descriptive anatomy of the rotator cuff dates back to Codman  
68 in 1934. The modern term *footprint* was initially coined in  
69 1999 by Curtis et al. who reported a consistent, measureable  
70 insertional pattern of the individual rotator cuff tendons [13,  
71 14]. Originally thought to run in parallel and insert onto dis-  
72 creet segments of the greater and lesser tuberosity, several  
73 recent studies show significant inter-digitation of the  
74 supraspinatus and infraspinatus tendons near the footprint  
75 [15]. Most recently, Mochizuki et al. studied 113 cadaveric  
76 specimens and found that the infraspinatus tendon occupied  
77 the majority of the footprint on the greater tuberosity, while  
78 the supraspinatus insertion was significantly smaller than pre-  
79 viously described by Curtis et al. and Dugas et al. (Table 1)  
80 [14, 16••, 17]. Specifically, the supraspinatus insertion is tri-  
81 angular in shape, broad along the articular margin, and con-  
82 verging to its apex at the anterior-most aspect of the greater  
83 tuberosity footprint. The infraspinatus insertion covered the  
84 remainder of the footprint curving much further anteriorly as

it extended laterally. (Fig. 1). This concept helps explain the  
observation that infraspinatus muscle atrophy is often seen  
with what was previously thought to be isolated supraspinatus  
tears [18]. While some authors postulated that increased ten-  
sion on the suprascapular nerve from supraspinatus muscle/  
tendon retraction was the underlying cause of infraspinatus  
muscle atrophy, Vad et al. demonstrated that most patients  
did not have abnormal electromyographic (EMG) results  
[18, 19]. Mochizuki et al. suggest instead that there may be  
a higher frequency of involvement of the infraspinatus in ro-  
tator cuff tears due to a better understanding of the anatomy.  
As the infraspinatus is now recognized as an important abduc-  
tor of the shoulder, restoration of the infraspinatus anatomy  
may be important for more complete restoration of shoulder  
motion and overall function.

**Critical Shoulder Angle**

While the concept that variability in scapular morphology  
may play a role in the pathogenesis of rotator cuff disease is  
not new, Moor and colleagues introduced the “critical shoul-  
der angle” (CSA) in 2013—a novel radiographic parameter  
that incorporated both glenoid inclination and lateral exten-  
sion of the acromion. The CSA is formed by a line extending  
from the superior to inferior aspect of the glenoid and a second  
line extending from the inferior aspect of the glenoid to the  
inferolateral aspect of the acromion (Fig. 2) [20]. Increased



**Fig. 1** Humeral insertions of the supraspinatus tendon (SST) and infraspinatus tendon (IST). The left figure depicts the traditional anatomic description in which the SST attaches to the highest

impression of the greater tuberosity (GT) and the IST attaches to the middle impression of the GT. The right depicts the anatomic footprint as described by Mochizuki et al. Adapted from [15]

**Fig. 2** AP Grashey views of right shoulder. The critical shoulder angle is formed by a line extending from the superior to inferior aspect of the glenoid and a second line extending from the inferior aspect of the glenoid to the inferolateral aspect of the acromion on true anteriorposterior film with the arm in neutral rotation. **a** CSA = 26°. **b** CSA = 40°



110 glenoid inclination and acromial “overhang” both produce a  
 111 more vertically directed net force vector during deltoid contraction  
 112 (superior humeral head migration), requiring the rotator cuff to exert a greater compensatory force to stabilize the  
 113 humeral head [20–22]. Wong et al. showed that a positive  
 114 glenoid inclination of 10° resulted in a 30% decrease in the  
 115 force required to produce superior head migration [23]. In  
 116 another biomechanical study, Gerber et al. showed that larger  
 117 CSAs (> 35°) increased the supraspinatus tendon load by 35%  
 118 to compensate for the increased shear force [24]. In an obser-  
 119 vational clinical study, Moor and colleagues found a signifi-  
 120 cantly higher prevalence of rotator cuff tears (RCTs) in pa-  
 121 tients with CSAs > 35° and this correlation has since been  
 122 supported by several more recent studies [25–28].

124 Garcia et al. found that patients with CSA > 38° had in-  
 125 creased risk of re-tear following rotator cuff repair (odds ratio  
 126 14.8), with higher CSAs associated with worse ASES scores  
 127 at short-term follow-up [29]. However, other authors have  
 128 been unable to find a difference in patient-reported outcome  
 129 scores at 24 months follow-up in patients with higher CSAs  
 130 [30, 31]. Some authors advocate for lateral acromioplasty in  
 131 order to reduce the CSA to 30° to 35° to offload the  
 132 supraspinatus. Katthagen et al. performed a cadaveric study  
 133 showing that 5 mm lateral acromion resection reduced the  
 134 CSA by nearly 3° without damaging the deltoid origin [32].  
 135 Marchetti et al. then showed that both 5 and 10 mm lateral  
 136 acromial resection did not significantly reduce the mechanical  
 137 or structural integrity of the lateral deltoid origin when loaded  
 138 to failure [33]. More research is necessary as there are current-  
 139 ly no outcomes published for lateral acromioplasty in combi-  
 140 nation with RCR.

**Acromioplasty**

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Multiple Level 1 and 2 studies published recently compar-  
 ing arthroscopic RCR with and without “traditional”  
 acromioplasty (coracoacromial ligament release and anterior  
 acromial resection) have shown no difference in func-  
 tional or patient reported outcomes or re-tear rates [34–36].

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**Partial-Thickness Rotator Cuff Tears**

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The prevalence of partial thickness rotator cuff tears  
 (PTRCTs) ranges from 15 to 32% in the general population,  
 and as high as 40% in the dominant arm of asymptomatic elite  
 overhead athletes [37, 38]. The natural history is poorly un-  
 derstood, but recent studies show that tear progression is cor-  
 related with the percentage of tendon thickness involved on  
 initial presentation. Patients with < 50% (Ellman grades I and  
 II) tendon involvement had a 14% chance of tear progression,  
 while patients with > 50% (grade III) tendon involvement  
 progressed 55% of the time [2]. Healing of PTRCTs does  
 not appear to occur spontaneously based on multiple imaging  
 and histologic studies, nor do non-anatomic procedures such  
 as open or arthroscopic acromioplasty alone prevent further  
 progression [39–43].

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The indications and methods for treatment of PTRCTs re-  
 main controversial. In general, tears involving < 50% of the  
 tendon are initially treated non-operatively. Surgical options  
 are reserved for those who fail non-operative treatment or for  
 tears involving > 50% of the tendon. Surgical management  
 options include arthroscopic debridement ± acromioplasty,

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168 in situ-repair, or tear completion with full-thickness rotator  
 169 cuff repair. Several studies have reported excellent clinical  
 170 outcomes with arthroscopic debridement and subacromial de-  
 171 compression for grade I and II tears [44, 45]. However, in one  
 172 study bursal surface tears were significantly more likely to fail  
 173 than articular surface tears (29 vs. 3%, respectively) [42]. This  
 174 has led some authors to consider repair over debridement in  
 175 partial bursal-sided tears involving < 50% of the tendon. Xiao  
 176 et al. repaired grade II (< 50%) bursal sided tears with either a  
 177 single-row or suture bridge construct and found 89% of re-  
 178 pairs to be intact on postoperative MRI, as well as significant  
 179 improvements in both UCLA and Constant scores [46].

180 Formal arthroscopic rotator cuff repair is generally accept-  
 181 ed for grade III (> 50%) bursal and articular-sided tears. There  
 182 are several described techniques, though generally divided  
 183 into either conversion repair or in-situ repair options.  
 184 Conversion repair involves completing a PTRCT into a full-  
 185 thickness defect followed by repair utilizing standard arthro-  
 186 scopic RCR techniques. While conversion has the advantage  
 187 of removing devitalized tissue, there is some concern about  
 188 detaching residual intact rotator cuff and disrupting the native  
 189 tendon length-tension relationship. However, conversion re-  
 190 pair has shown excellent results in several recent studies eval-  
 191 uating both tendon integrity and outcome scores. Iyengar et al.  
 192 showed significant improvements in UCLA scores and 82%  
 193 tendon repair integrity by MRI at 2 years follow-up [47].  
 194 Kamath et al. reported 88% tendon integrity by ultrasound at  
 195 an average of 11 months following conversion repair, and  
 196 patient satisfaction rates greater than 90% [48]. In both stud-  
 197 ies, absence of structural healing did not appear to negatively  
 198 affect clinical results. When comparing bursal versus articular  
 199 sided tears treated by conversion repair, authors have shown  
 200 improved clinical outcomes (VAS, UCLA, ASES, and  
 201 Constant) in both groups without significant difference in  
 202 retear rates [49, 50].

203 In-situ repairs have the advantage of maintaining the intact  
 204 lateral insertion of the rotator cuff while re-fixing the medial  
 205 articular insertion. While the intact anatomy is preserved, the  
 206 surgical techniques become more demanding. Several repair  
 207 techniques for articular-sided tears have been described in-  
 208 cluding the transtendon repair (most common), an all-inside  
 209 intra-articular repair, and transosseus repair. In the transtendon  
 210 technique, a suture anchor is inserted into the medial aspect of  
 211 the footprint through the intact tendon. Sutures are then shut-  
 212 tled through intact tendon with a passer in a horizontal mat-  
 213 tress fashion and then tied in the subacromial space, reducing  
 214 tendon to bone. The repair is then assessed with the arthro-  
 215 scope in the glenohumeral joint. Shin et al. showed significant  
 216 improvements in VAS, ASES, and Constant scores with 92%  
 217 patient satisfaction rate and no recurrent tears on follow-up  
 218 MRI [51]. Despite high patient satisfaction, some authors re-  
 219 port over 40% of patients may experience stiffness, discomfort  
 220 at terminal motion, and difficulty with activities of daily living

[52]. Some surgeons attribute the residual symptoms to ten- 221  
 sion mismatch between the delaminated tendon and intact 222  
 tendon [53]. This observation led to the development of an 223  
 all-inside intra-articular repair technique, in which only the 224  
 delaminated articular sided tear is reduced to bone [54]. 225  
 While this may provide a more anatomic repair, prospective 226  
 data is lacking. Spencer et al. performed a retrospective review 227  
 of 20 patients who underwent all-inside intra-articular repair 228  
 for grade III articular-sided lesions and found improved clin- 229  
 ical outcome scores without major post-operative clinical stiff- 230  
 ness [55]. 231

232 In separate biomechanical studies, both Peters et al. and 232  
 Lomas et al. compared transtendon repair versus conversion 233  
 repair with double row construct and found significantly 234  
 higher ultimate load to failure and lower gap formation in 235  
 the transtendon technique [56, 57]. However, two randomized 236  
 clinical studies failed to show a difference in clinical outcome 237  
 scores or re-tear rates between the two groups [58, 59]. Both 238  
 studies did show significant improvements in VAS, ASES, 239  
 and Constant scores as well as similarly low re-tear rates on 240  
 follow-up MRIs in both groups. 241

242 Partial articular-sided supraspinatus tendon avulsion 242  
 (PASTA) injuries are a more recognized subset of PTRCTs. 243  
 Treatment indications are controversial and follow similar ra- 244  
 tionale as other partial tears. Similar to the above discussion, 245  
 numerous techniques have been described for PASTA injuries 246  
 including debridement, conversion repair, and in-situ repair. 247  
 Stuart et al. showed good to excellent results in 93% of 248  
 PASTA lesions treated with a transtendinous technique at 249  
 12 years follow-up [60]. 250

**Full-Thickness Rotator Cuff Tears** 251

**Open Versus Arthroscopic** 252

253 Given the relatively high re-tear rates in large and massive 253  
 tears, debate remains regarding mini-open versus arthroscopic 254  
 techniques for rotator cuff repair. Though some report mini- 255  
 open techniques to have superior healing rates in large and 256  
 massive tears (62 and 40%) compared to arthroscopic repair 257  
 (24 and 12%) [61, 62], multiple systematic reviews have not 258  
 shown a significant difference between the two techniques 259  
 [63, 64]. In addition, Carr et al. recently published a multicen- 260  
 ter randomized trial that found no difference in effectiveness 261  
 between open and arthroscopic repair of cuff tears regardless 262  
 of size of tear or patient age [65]. 263

**Margin Convergence and Interval Slides** 264

265 Techniques to assist with large and massive tears, often 265  
 deemed irreparable when contracted and immobile, were de- 266  
 signed to address these poor healing rates. Margin 267

268 convergence, initially described by Burkhart et al., converts  
 269 longitudinal U- and L-shape tears into smaller crescent tears  
 270 by adjoining anterior and posterior limbs in a side-to-side  
 271 repair [66]. The lateral free margin of the crescent tear can  
 272 then be mobilized and repaired to the anatomic footprint with-  
 273 out excessive tension on the rotator cuff repair. Several studies  
 274 have shown reduced strain and tension on the repair with this  
 275 technique, with corresponding satisfactory clinical outcomes  
 276 [67–69]. The anterior interval slide, described by Tauro in  
 277 1999, is a technique to improve mobility of a retracted,  
 278 supraspinatus tendon by releasing the coracohumeral ligament  
 279 and rotator interval tissue [70]. Lo et al. expanded on this  
 280 concept and described a posterior interval slide in which the  
 281 plane of tissue between the supraspinatus and infraspinatus is  
 282 released along the scapular spine in tears that require increased  
 283 mobility after anterior interval release [71]. Complications  
 284 from this technique include possible devascularization of the  
 285 rotator cuff tissue when concomitant slides are performed.  
 286 Additionally, a recent study comparing large-to-massive  
 287 contracted rotator cuff tears treated with either complete repair  
 288 with posterior interval slide or partial repair without posterior  
 289 interval slide showed no difference in clinical outcomes. The  
 290 group that underwent complete repair with posterior interval  
 291 slide showed a significantly higher re-tear rate (91%) and  
 292 greater defects on 2-year follow-up MR arthrogram [72•].

293 **Repair Techniques: Single-Row, Double-Row,**  
 294 **and Transosseus-Equivalent (TOE)**

295 Single-row repair constructs have the advantage of reduced  
 296 cost and decreased surgical time. Although there are many  
 297 configurations, typically two double-loaded suture anchors  
 298 are placed in a single row and suture passed and tied in a  
 299 horizontal-mattress configuration. Double row repairs were  
 300 designed to improve healing rates by increasing compression  
 301 and tendon-bone contact-area with both medial and lateral  
 302 rows [73]. The double row is performed in a similar fashion  
 303 to a single row by placing pre-loaded suture anchors in both  
 304 medial and lateral rows and suture passed and tied in a hori-  
 305 zontal mattress configuration. A systematic review by Duquin  
 306 and colleagues showed that double-row constructs had super-  
 307 ior healing rates than single-row configurations in tears larger  
 308 than 1 cm [74]. Nho et al. performed a systematic review and  
 309 concluded that while some studies did show improved tendon  
 310 healing with double-row constructs, there were no differences  
 311 in clinical outcomes between single-row and double-row suture  
 312 anchor repair techniques [75]. The TOE technique  
 313 (suture-bridge) was designed to improve the biomechanical  
 314 repair construct in an effort to further decrease re-tear rates  
 315 [76•]. In cadaveric studies, TOE repairs showed improved  
 316 tendon-bone contact area and higher ultimate load to failure  
 317 compared to double-row repairs [77–79]. The TOE repair be-  
 318 gins in the same way as a single row repair, where first a

medial row of pre-loaded anchors is placed. Next, one limb 319  
 from each anchor is brought over the top of the repair and 320  
 secured to the lateral margin of the greater tuberosity footprint 321  
 with a knotless anchor. Recently there has been some debate 322  
 about the necessity of tying medial row knots prior to placing 323  
 the knotless lateral row. Some others have advocated for tying 324  
 medial row knots while authors have proposed faster knotless 325  
 (speedbridge) techniques. With the addition of tying knots at 326  
 the medial row compared to knotless techniques, Mall et al. 327  
 showed greater hysteresis, less gap formation, and higher 328  
 ultimate load in the medially knotted groups in biomechanical 329  
 studies only [80•]. Clinical data is limited comparing single 330  
 row, double-row, and TOE repair techniques. Mihata et al. 331  
 published their clinical data which retrospectively looked at 332  
 structural and functional outcomes comparing single-row, 333  
 double-row, or TOE (suture-bridge) techniques and found 334  
 lower re-tear rates and higher functional outcome scores in 335  
 the suture-bridge group for large and massive tears [81•]. 336

**Subscapularis Tears And “Comma” Tissue** 337

Once originally described as “hidden lesions” given the diffi- 338  
 culty identifying their presence, subscapularis tears have since 339  
 been identified in almost 30% of arthroscopic shoulder proce- 340  
 dures [82, 83]. Recognition of subscapularis tears was aided 341  
 by the description of the comma sign, hypothesized to be 342  
 composed of humeral attachments of the superior 343  
 glenohumeral and coracohumeral ligaments, by Lo and 344  
 Burkhart in 2003 [84•]. Although others have proposed an 345  
 alternative pathoanatomy for this arthroscopic finding, the re- 346  
 duction of the tissue that represents the comma tissue to the 347  
 remnant subscapularis has been shown to recreate the 348  
 intraarticular aspect of the torn subscapularis while concur- 349  
 rently reducing the leading edge of the supraspinatus [85]. 350  
 Short-term and long-term results of isolated subscapularis 351  
 and combined rotator cuff tears involving the subscapularis 352  
 have consistently been shown to lead to good or excellent 353  
 results in the vast majority of cases, with structurally intact 354  
 repairs evaluated via ultrasound and magnetic resonance im- 355  
 aging reported as high as 93% [86–92]. Additionally, the re- 356  
 duction of the comma tissue to the torn subscapularis tendon 357  
 can help reduce the leading edge of supraspinatus tears when 358  
 found concomitantly. 359

**Conclusion** 360

Despite an improved understanding of the native rotator cuff 361  
 footprint and the role of the subscapularis tendon, predictable 362  
 healing of large and massive rotator cuff tears still remains 363  
 inconsistent. Some studies have shown inferior clinical out- 364  
 comes associated with non-healed tears following arthroscop- 365  
 ic repair, while others have shown no difference. 366

367 Nevertheless, improving the structural integrity of rotator cuff  
 368 repairs continues to be a main focus of research. The evolution  
 369 of arthroscopic rotator cuff repair techniques is supported by  
 370 biomechanical studies, but clinical data at this stage are prom-  
 371 ising but inconclusive. Further clinical studies are necessary to  
 372 determine the optimal repair method as our understanding of  
 373 anatomy and technique improves.

374 **Compliance with Ethical Standards**

375 **Conflict of Interest** The authors declare that they have no conflict of  
 376 interest.

377 **Human and Animal Rights and Informed Consent** This article does not  
 378 contain any studies with human or animal subjects performed by any of  
 379 the authors.

Q1 380 **References**

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 382 highlighted as:  
 383 • Of importance  
 384 •• Of major importance

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**AUTHOR PLEASE ANSWER QUERY.**

Q1. Please provide annotations for references 4, 16, 72, 76, 80, 81, 84.

UNCORRECTED PROOF