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1 **Surgical treatment of base of thumb arthritis: a systematic review and network meta-**
2 **analysis of randomised studies**

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4

ABSTRACT

5 Our aim was to assess the comparative effectiveness of different surgical interventions
6 available for the treatment of base of thumb (carpometacarpal joint) arthritis. Our primary
7 outcomes were pain, function and key pinch strength at long-term follow up (>6 months). A
8 total of 17 randomised studies were included in the systematic review. Where possible,
9 pairwise and network meta-analyses were performed. Based on evidence of moderate certainty,
10 the addition of a soft tissue procedure (ligament reconstruction and/or tendon interposition)
11 does not appear to be associated with any clinical benefits compared to simple trapeziectomy.
12 Treatment rankings from the network meta-analysis favoured joint replacement followed by
13 simple trapeziectomy for function, trapeziectomy with ligament reconstruction and tendon
14 interposition followed by arthrodesis for pain and joint replacement followed by arthrodesis
15 for key pinch strength. More high-quality randomised studies are needed with special focus on
16 joint replacement and arthrodesis which are poorly represented in the literature.

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INTRODUCTION

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The thumb carpometacarpal joint (CMCJ) is a bi-concave saddle joint which allows a wide range of movement in three planes (Dias 2007), which predisposes to degenerative changes. The prevalence of thumb CMCJ arthritis increases with age and is primarily seen in postmenopausal women, with a female:male ratio of 6:1 (Dias 2007 references). Although the condition appears to be predominantly idiopathic, excessive basal joint laxity, which is common in young women, may predispose to the condition as a result of repeated loading of the subluxated joint. In addition, the high joint reaction forces, which have been shown to be 12 times the applied pinch force, are also thought to contribute to the development of arthritis (Cooney 1981). Its high prevalence is demonstrated by epidemiological studies which revealed radiographic evidence of thumb CMCJ osteoarthritis in a third of people over the age of 50, increasing up to 91% in the over 80s (Haugen 2011, Sodha 2005). The main clinical features are pain and impaired hand function, especially reduced pinch and grip strength.

First-line treatment for patients with mild symptoms include activity modification, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), splinting, strengthening exercises and intra-articular injections. In their systematic review and meta-analysis, Riley et al. (2019) found that the effectiveness of injection therapies is controversial compared to other treatments and between different injection therapies themselves. In an earlier systematic review, Spaans et al. (2015) reported possible benefits of orthoses and intra-articular corticosteroid and sodium hyaluronate injections.

For patients who do not respond adequately to conservative treatment modalities, there is a myriad of surgical techniques available. The surgical options include trapeziectomy alone or with a concomitant soft tissue procedure [ligament reconstruction (LR) and/or tendon

43 interposition (TI)], arthrodesis (fusion) and different types of prosthetic arthroplasty (silicone,
44 Artelon, metal and pyrocarbon). There is no current consensus on the superiority of any
45 technique over any others based on the last Cochrane systematic review in 2015 (Wajon 2015).

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47 The aim of the present systematic review was to summarise and present the best available
48 evidence assessing the comparative effectiveness of surgical interventions for thumb CMCJ
49 osteoarthritis. In light of the large number of surgical interventions available, we also wanted
50 to see how the different treatments rank in terms of their clinical effectiveness for the most
51 important outcome measures.

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METHODS

The present systematic review was conducted according to the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) guidelines (Moher et al., 2009). Our PICO was defined as follows:

P – patients undergoing with thumb carpometacarpal joint arthritis

I – any type of surgical intervention

C – any other type of surgical intervention

O – pain, function and key pinch strength (primary outcomes); grip and tip/tripod pinch strength, range of movement, satisfaction, radiographic outcomes and complications (secondary outcomes).

Follow up was defined as: a) short-term (<12 weeks), b) mid-term (12 weeks to 6 months) and c) long-term (>6 months).

Eligibility

Studies were included if they had a parallel randomised design (blinded and non-blinded) and compared any surgical procedure for thumb carpometacarpal arthritis with any other surgical procedure. No criteria were applied for severity of arthritis, length of follow up, post-operative rehabilitation protocol, however these parameters were taken into account when pooling results based on clinical homogeneity. Non-English, non-human, non-randomised studies and studies with participants less than 18 years of age were excluded.

Search Strategy

76 A thorough literature search was conducted by two of the authors (DC and NN) via Medline,
77 EMBASE, Scopus and the Cochrane Database from inception to June 2020. The following
78 Boolean operators were used in “all fields”: “(((thumb) OR (carpometacarpal)) OR
79 (trapeziometacarpal)) AND (surgery) AND (randomi*)”.

80 Relevant review articles were screened to identify eligible articles that may have been missed
81 at the initial search. Additionally, reference list screening and citation tracking in Google
82 Scholar were performed for each eligible article. The grey literature was searched via Open
83 Grey for unpublished studies to minimise the risk of publication bias.

84

85 **Screening**

86 The search returned a total of 162 results. After exclusion of non-eligible articles, title and
87 abstract screening, 17 studies were found to fulfil the eligibility criteria. No additional articles
88 were identified from reviews, reference list screening, citation tracking or the grey literature.
89 Figure 1 (PRISMA flowchart) illustrates the article screening process.

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92 **Risk of Bias Assessment – Grading of Certainty of Evidence**

93 Internal validity (freedom from bias) was assessed separately by two authors (DC and EVM)
94 and a third opinion (NN) was sought where disagreements existed. The “Cochrane
95 Collaboration’s tool for assessing risk of bias in randomised trials” was used, which includes
96 seven questions/criteria assessing six types of bias: 1. “selection bias” (randomisation and
97 allocation concealment), 2. “performance bias” (blinding of participants and personnel), 3.
98 “detection bias” (blinding of outcome assessment), 4. “attrition bias” (completeness of
99 outcome data), 5. “reporting bias” (selective reporting) and 6. “other bias” (Higgins et al.,
100 2011). As “other bias”, our pre-set assessment criteria were: a) inadequate or inappropriate

101 inclusion and exclusion criteria, b) differences between treatment groups at baseline
102 (confounding), c) inappropriate statistical tests deployed, d) no sample size calculation, e)
103 stopping trial early, f) inadequate reporting of results, and g) other methodological flaws not
104 included in the 6 categories of the tool. For each study, each item/domain is rated as of “low”,
105 “high” or “unclear” risk of bias. Overall risk of bias for each study was determined by the
106 authors with the use of judgment regarding the likelihood of the present biases influencing the
107 true results of the study. Justifications are presented for all decisions.

108

109 The certainty/quality of the evidence was graded by the use of two tools. The GRADE tool was
110 used for comparisons where quantitative analyses (pairwise meta-analyses) were performed
111 and the Cochrane Collaboration Back Review Group (BRG) tool was used when results were
112 pooled qualitatively based on direction of effect (Guyatt et al., 2008; Van Tulder et al., 2003).
113 Table 1 (a, b) summarises the criteria and components of the two tools. Table 1a also describes
114 how each component of the GRADE tool was assessed. Recommendations for clinical practice
115 were strong only for results with evidence of “high” and “moderate” certainty of evidence and
116 weak for “low”, “very low”, “limited” or conflicting” evidence. The certainty of the evidence
117 was graded separately for each outcome measure.

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119 Overall risk of bias was used as an extension of study quality where data were pooled
120 qualitatively only; however external validity (generalisability/applicability) and precision were
121 accounted for in the “other” risk of bias of the Cochrane Collaboration tool. Where results were
122 meta-analysed, imprecision and indirectness of evidence (external validity/applicability)
123 were considered separately as part of the GRADE tool (Guyatt et al., 2008).

124

125 **Data extraction – handling**

126 The key methodological characteristics and results of each included study were tabulated in
127 Microsoft Word to facilitate analysis and presentation.

128

129 Comparisons for which two or more studies reported results of the same primary outcome at
130 similar follow up time points were pooled quantitatively in pairwise meta-analyses where
131 adequate numerical data existed, otherwise qualitative pooling was performed based on
132 direction of effect (statistically higher, lower or no difference) in comparisons including at least
133 two studies. Secondary outcomes were only pooled qualitatively. Significant clinical
134 heterogeneity (differences in populations, interventions and outcome measures) precluded
135 pooling of results, while less significant methodological differences across studies were taken
136 into account for downgrading the certainty of the evidence where the authors judged it
137 appropriate. Where results were reported at more than one follow up time point for the same
138 pre-defined follow up period, the ones which were as close as possible to other studies were
139 chosen to minimise heterogeneity.

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141 Results for primary outcomes that were quantitatively pooled were considered significant if
142 they were both statistically and clinically significant. As clinical significance, we defined a
143 difference of at least 15 points (Tubac et al., 2012) in VAS for pain, 15 points in DASH (Beaton
144 et al., 2001) and 0.5kg for key pinch strength (set arbitrarily as no relevant literature exists).
145 These values were also used as the minimal clinically relevant difference (MCRD) for sample
146 size calculations when assessing “imprecision” as part of GRADE (Table 1).

147

148 Finally, a network meta-analysis was conducted for all primary outcome measures for long-
149 term follow up ranking surgical interventions according to their likelihood of being the most
150 effective. The certainty of evidence for the ranks was not graded.

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152 Dealing with missing data

153 Where methodological details required for risk of bias assessment were missing or not clear,
154 that specific domain was assigned an “unclear” risk of bias. Where descriptive statistics were
155 not reported and the study was published in the last 10 years, attempts were made to contact
156 the authors of the original RCTs to retrieve the required data. Where not possible, studies were
157 excluded from quantitative analyses where important descriptive statistics (mean/median and
158 sample size) were unavailable. Missing variability statistics (e.g. standard deviation) were
159 imputed by using variability statistics in studies with the closest populations, sample sizes and
160 interventions at similar follow up time points. Where exact values of means and standard
161 deviations were not reported in the text or tables, these were obtained from figures where
162 available.

163

164 Statistical Analysis

165 The Review Manager V.5 (RevMan) software was used for pairwise meta-analyses and their
166 accompanying forest plots, p values and heterogeneity tests (Chi^2 and I^2). Mean differences
167 (MD) with 95% confidence intervals were calculated and reported where outcome measures
168 were identical in the studies, while standardised mean differences (SMD) were used where
169 these were similar but not identical. Expecting wide variability in studies’ settings, random-
170 effects models were deployed for meta-syntheses. Publication bias was not assessed with
171 formal tests as the maximum number of pooled studies was only two.

172 STATA 16.1 with Ian White’s “mvmeta” extension (multivariate random-effects meta-
173 regression) was used for network meta-analyses (frequentist approach) (18).

174 Where exact mean and standard deviation (SD) values were not reported in the included
175 articles, approximate values (to the nearest decimal place) were derived from the graphs. When

176 only interquartile range (IQR) was reported, the SD was calculated as IQR/1.35. When only
177 median was reported, mean was assumed the same. When confidence intervals (CI) of means
178 were reported, SDs were calculated by dividing the length of the CI by 3.92, and then
179 multiplying by the square root of the sample size. Where standard errors of mean were given,
180 these were converted to SDs by multiplying them by the square root of the sample size.

181

182 The following formula was used for sample size calculation as part of the assessment for
183 imprecision:

$$184 \quad N = \frac{2(a + b)^2 SD^2}{(X_1 - X_2)^2}$$

185 Where:

186 $N =$ the sample size required in each of the groups

187 $X_1 - X_2 =$ MCRD (defined as 20 VAS points for pain, 15 DASH points for function and 0.5kg
188 for key pinch strength)

189 $SD^2 =$ population variance (calculated using pooled SD from included studies)

190 $a = 1.96$ (for 5% type I error)

191 $b = 0.842$ (for 80% power)

192

RESULTS

193

194 **Characteristics of included studies**

195 Table 2 summarises the characteristics of the included randomised studies. The 17 eligible
196 studies had a total of 1083 participants. Eleven (11) types of surgical interventions were
197 assessed including trapeziectomy alone (n=6), trapeziectomy with kirschner wire stabilisation
198 (n=1), trapeziectomy with silicone (Swanson) arthroplasty (n=1), trapeziectomy with ligament
199 reconstruction (LR; n=2), trapeziectomy with tendon interposition (TI; autograft; n=4),
200 trapeziectomy with LRTI (autograft; n=13), trapeziectomy with LRTI using allograft (n=1),
201 trapeziectomy with LRTI using no bone tunnel (n=1), Artelon CMC spacer (n=1),
202 trapeziometacarpal arthrodesis (n=1) and joint replacement (uncemented n=2, cemented n=1).
203 Where an autograft was used for tendon interposition, the following tendons were utilised:
204 flexor carpii radialis (n=12), abductor pollicis longus (n=4), palmaris longus (n=2) and
205 extensor carpii radialis brevis (n=1). All 17 studies reported results at long-term (>6 months),
206 six at short-term (up to 3 months) and three at mid-term follow up. Final follow up ranged from
207 7 months to 18 years. Publication dates ranged from 1997-2019.

208

209 **Risk of bias – Certainty of Evidence**

210 All studies were classified as “high” overall risk of bias due to non-blinded patients. Even
211 where the “assessors” (study personnel) were blinded, outcome assessment was considered as
212 high risk of bias for patient-reported outcomes as for these the true assessors are the patients
213 themselves completing the questionnaires. As a result, certainty of evidence could be
214 “moderate” at best. Risk of bias for each study can be seen in table 3.

215 Based on the pre-defined MCRDs and the pooled standard deviations for each of the primary
216 outcome measures, the following sample sizes were calculated as the optimal information size
217 for a pairwise comparison to have adequate precision, otherwise the evidence was downgraded

218 for “imprecision”: a) pain, n=18; b) function, n=19; c) key pinch strength, n=256 in each
219 treatment group.

220

221 **Comparisons of interventions**

222 Table 4 summarises the findings of the included studies according to direction of effect
223 (statistically higher, lower, no difference) grouped by the same comparison of interventions.

224 **Trapeziectomy vs Trapeziectomy with LRTI**

225 Six studies of “high” overall risk of bias assessed long-term outcomes of trapeziectomy alone
226 compared to trapeziectomy with LRTI. Adding LRTI to a trapeziectomy does not appear to
227 influence long-term pain, function, strength (key pinch, grip and tip/tripod), ROM, satisfaction
228 or complications. There may be a smaller radiographic gap due to more significant collapse of
229 the thumb metacarpal in trapeziectomy alone, however this does not seem to influence clinical
230 outcomes and is based on conflicting evidence.

231 Pairwise meta-analyses for function and key pinch strength confirmed the results of the
232 qualitative pooling showing no statistically or clinically significant benefit of one
233 intervention over the other (function, MD -3.72 [-9.15, 1.71] favouring trapeziectomy alone,
234 Figure 2a; key pinch, MD 0.07kg [-0.28, 0.43] favouring trapeziectomy with LRTI; Figure
235 2b).

236 Only one study (Davis 1997) reported mid-term outcomes and no studies reported short-term
237 outcomes.

238 **Certainty of Evidence:** Moderate (level 2) for all outcomes except radiographic gap
239 (conflicting; level 3)

240 **Trapeziectomy with LR vs Trapeziectomy with LRTI**

241 Two studies of “high” overall risk of bias assessed the benefits of adding a TI to a
242 trapeziectomy with LR. No significant differences were found for long-term function, grip

243 strength satisfaction and radiographic gap. The evidence for ROM and tip/tripod strength was
244 conflicting; for both outcomes, one study showed negative effects when adding a TI and the
245 other no difference.

246 Neither of the studies included short- or mid-term follow up.

247 **Certainty of Evidence:** Low (level 3) for all outcomes; conflicting (level 3) evidence for
248 tip/tripod strength and ROM.

249 **Trapeziectomy with TI vs Trapeziectomy with LRTI**

250 Two studies of “high” overall risk of bias assessed the benefits of adding a LR to a
251 trapeziectomy with TI. The two interventions were similar for long-term pain, function,
252 strength (key pinch and grip) and ROM.

253 The pairwise meta-analysis showed non-clinically and non-statistically significant benefits in
254 long-term key pinch strength when a LR is added (MD 0.45kg [-0.28, 1.18]; Figure 2c).

255 Only one study (Davis 1997) reported mid-term outcomes and neither included short-term
256 follow up.

257 **Certainty of Evidence:** Low (level 3) for all outcomes.

258 **Trapeziectomy vs Trapeziectomy with TI**

259 Two studies of “high” overall risk of bias assessed the benefits of adding a TI to a
260 trapeziectomy, which did not appear to have any significant effects in long-term pain, function,
261 strength (key pinch and grip) and ROM.

262 Our pairwise meta-analysis showed that in fact adding a TI to trapeziectomy may have
263 negative effects in long-term key pinch strength which reached clinical but not statistical
264 significance (MD -0.56kg [-1.22, 0.10]; Figure 2d).

265 Only one study (Davis 1997) reported mid-term outcomes and neither included short-term
266 follow up.

267 **Certainty of Evidence:** Low (level 3) for all outcomes.

268 **Trapeziectomy with LRTI vs Carpometacarpal Arthrodesis**

269 Two studies of “high” overall risk of bias compared trapeziectomy with LRTI versus CMC
270 arthrodesis (fusion). No significant differences were found for mid- or long-term pain, long-
271 term function, mid-term ROM and mid-term satisfaction.

272 No short-term data were reported.

273 **Certainty of Evidence:** Low (level 3) for all outcomes; conflicting (level 3) evidence for mid-
274 term function, long-term ROM and long-term satisfaction.

275 **Miscellaneous**

276 The following comparisons were only assessed by one study therefore their results were not
277 pooled: trapeziectomy with TI vs trapeziectomy with K-wire stabilisation, trapeziectomy with
278 LRTI (autograft) vs trapeziectomy with LRTI (allograft), trapeziectomy with TI vs Artelon
279 joint spacer, trapeziectomy with TI vs silicone (Swanson) joint replacement, trapeziectomy
280 with LRTI vs joint replacement (Elektra, cementless), Cemented (DLC all-poly) vs Cementless
281 (Elektra) joint replacement and trapeziectomy with LRTI with bone tunnel vs trapeziectomy
282 with LRTI with no bone tunnel. The results of these comparisons (all of which are based on
283 evidence of “limited” certainty) can be seen in table 4.

284

285 **Complications**

286 A total of 13 studies compared the incidence of complications between surgical interventions.
287 Compared to simple trapeziectomy, trapeziectomy with an additional soft tissue procedure
288 (LR, TI or LRTI) was associated with a similar incidence of complications in four studies
289 (Belcher et al.,2000); Gangopadhyay et al., 2012; Salem et al., 2012) and with a higher risk of
290 complications in one study (Field & Buchanan, 2007), which included irritation over the wound
291 used to harvest the tendon and symptoms of complex regional pain syndrome (CRPS).

292 A single study comparing trapeziectomy with LRTI to arthrodesis (Vermeulen et al., 2014)
293 reported a higher incidence of moderate and severe complications in the latter group; these
294 included non-union requiring revision surgery, delayed union and CRPS.
295 Similarly, a single study assessing the effectiveness of trapeziectomy with LRTI vs joint
296 replacement (Elektra) (Throkildsen et al., 2019) demonstrated more complications in the joint
297 replacement group both in absolute numbers (3 vs 6 patients) and severity; there were 2 cup
298 loosening, 3 dislocations and a periprosthetic infection in the joint replacement group, and a
299 haematoma and persistent pain associated with the harvesting of the flexor carpii radialis
300 tendon in the trapeziectomy with LRTI group.

301

302 **Network meta-analysis**

303 A total of 5, 7 and 10 studies were used in network meta-analyses for long-term pain,
304 function and key pinch strength respectively.

- 305 - **Pain:** Trapeziectomy with LRTI had the highest probability (40%) of being the most
306 effective surgical treatment for pain relief in patients with CMCJ arthritis, followed
307 by fusion (26%). Artelon spacers had the highest probability (67%) of being the worst
308 surgical modality for pain relief (Figure 3).
- 309 - **Function:** Joint replacement (Elektra-uncemented) had a 99% probability of being
310 the best treatment modality for function. Trapeziectomy alone had the highest
311 probability (83%) for being the second-best surgical treatment. Fusion was found to
312 be the worst treatment for function (99% probability) (Figure 4). We note that only
313 one study contributed data for each of joint replacement and fusion.
- 314 - **Key pinch strength:** Joint replacement (Elektra-uncemented) had the highest
315 probability (62%) of being the most effective for key pinch strength and fusion had
316 the highest probability (33%) of being second best. Trapeziectomy with TI had the

317 highest probability (44%) of being the least effective surgical intervention for key
318 pinch strength (Figure 5).
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321 **DISCUSSION**

322 We demonstrated no significant long-term benefits of adding a soft tissue procedure (ligament
323 reconstruction and/or tendon interposition) to a trapeziectomy for thumb CMCJ osteoarthritis
324 with evidence of moderate certainty. A tendon interposition may in fact have clinically
325 significant negative effects in long-term key pinch strength compared to a trapeziectomy alone
326 (evidence of low certainty), however this difference did not reach statistical significance, most
327 likely due to the small population (type II error). The incidence and severity of complications
328 were higher with joint replacement and arthrodesis compared to trapeziectomy with LRTI and
329 adding a TI to a trapeziectomy, though generally safe, was associated with minor complications
330 related to the harvesting of the tendon.

331 Treatment rankings from the network meta-analysis favoured joint replacement and
332 trapeziectomy alone for function, trapeziectomy with LRTI for pain and joint replacement for
333 key pinch strength. We advise interpreting these results with caution as some of the
334 interventions were represented by a single study of “high” overall risk of bias.

335 The Elektra[®] joint replacement, a metal-on-metal cementless implant, which showed very
336 promising results in the included RCT, has demonstrated less favourable outcomes elsewhere.
337 In their cohort study of mean 13.3 years follow up, Froschauer et al. (2020) demonstrated very
338 high complication (62%) and revision (46%) rates and despite similar outcomes in pain,
339 function and ROM compared to resection-suspension arthroplasty, patient satisfaction rates
340 were higher in the latter group. The prospective study by Klahn et al. (2012) was in agreement
341 with Froschauer et al. (2020), reporting a revision rate of 44% at 72 months due to cup
342 loosening, which is most likely related to the biomechanical properties of the trapezium fixation
343 and adverse outcomes from the metal-on-metal bearing. In contrast, the ARPE[®] implant
344 (Zimmer Biomet Holdings Inc., Warsaw, Indiana/USA), which is a metal-on-polyethylene

345 cementless implant, has shown good survivorship in observational studies, with 10-year
346 survival rates of around 93% (Martin-Ferrero et al., 2019; Martin-Ferrero, 2012).

347 The biodegradable Artelon joint spacer (Artimplant, Vastra Frolunda, Sweden), which is made
348 of polycaprolactone-based polyurethaneurea and is degraded after around 6 years, has also
349 been associated with poor outcomes. Its results do not appear to be superior to other surgical
350 treatments and it carries a high incidence of complications, including high revision rates
351 (Smeraglia et al., 2018), therefore its use is not recommended. On the contrary, CMCJ
352 arthrodesis has demonstrated generally favourable outcomes. Despite concerns for
353 compromised function, the literature has consistently demonstrated excellent functional
354 outcomes including grip and pinch strength, good pain relief, satisfactory union rates and very
355 high patient satisfaction (Rizzo et al., 2009; Shyamalan et al., 2014; Jain and Jarvis, 2018). The
356 most commonly used technique for arthrodesis appears to be chevron osteotomy with plating
357 and autologous bone grafting, which has been shown to have excellent outcomes with low
358 complication rates and union rates greater than 90%. Consequent development of radiographic
359 metacarpophalangeal and scaphotrapeziotrapezoid joint arthritis does not appear to be
360 clinically relevant (Rizzo et al., 2009).

361 Trapeziectomy with or without concomitant soft tissue procedures is the most popular surgical
362 option for thumb CMCJ arthritis. Observational studies support its use demonstrating good
363 short- and long-term outcomes (Avisar et al., 2015; Vermeulen et al., 2009). Resection of the
364 trapezium has historically been associated with concerns regarding collapse of the thumb
365 metacarpal and prevention of this is the underlying principle of tendon interposition
366 (suspensoplasty). The studies included in our review comparing trapeziectomy with and
367 without LRTI reported conflicting results, however even where the radiographic gap favoured
368 the LRTI group, the differences were not clinically relevant (Davis et al., 1997; De Smet et al.,
369 2004; Field et al., 2007).

370
371 Based on our findings, we advise against concomitant soft tissue procedures when a
372 trapeziectomy is performed for thumb CM CJ osteoarthritis as they do not appear to be
373 associated with superior clinical outcomes, they extend tourniquet times and may increase the
374 risk of complications where additional skin incisions and tendon sacrifices are performed.
375 Additionally, post-operative radiological surveillance after a trapeziectomy (with or without a
376 soft tissue procedure) seems to be unnecessary in the absence of patient dissatisfaction or
377 suspected complications as the radiographic collapse of the thumb metacarpal does not seem
378 to be associated with clinical complications or adverse effects. Arthrodesis appears to be a good
379 surgical option in terms of clinical outcomes, and incidence of complications (including non-
380 union) in observational studies, however the RCT included in the present review showed more
381 complications compared to trapeziectomy with LRTI. Finally, despite the promising results of
382 the Elektra[®] joint replacement, which were based only on a single study of high-risk of bias,
383 we cannot recommend its use taking into account the rest of the existing literature reporting
384 poor long-term survivorship. Other implants which have shown favourable long-term results,
385 however, should be compared to other surgical treatments through RCTs in the future.

386 This is the first meta-analysis (pairwise and network) of RCTs assessing the effectiveness of
387 different surgical options for thumb CM CJ osteoarthritis. Previous systematic reviews of
388 treatments (non-surgical and surgical) have been largely inconclusive due to the paucity of
389 high-quality evidence. Vermeulen et al. (2011) in their qualitative systematic review of surgical
390 management of thumb CM CJ osteoarthritis including randomised and non-randomised studies
391 concluded that no surgical procedure is proven to be superior than another, however CM CJ
392 arthrodesis and joint replacements look promising, although results of these are only based on
393 limited evidence. Finally, there was no additional benefit to a trapeziectomy of adding either a
394 ligament reconstruction or tendon interposition and LRTI was associated with higher
395 complication rates, all of which are in agreement with our findings. A similar Cochrane

396 systematic review including only RCTs (Wajon et al., 2015) found that no procedure
397 demonstrated superior outcomes over another in terms of pain, function and complications,
398 however most studies were of unclear risk of bias. Based on low level evidence, LRTI did not
399 seem to improve outcomes or increase complications when added to a trapeziectomy. In
400 addition to the quantitative analysis that we performed compared to this last systematic review,
401 we also added another 6 RCTs.

402 Despite the methodological rigour of the present systematic review, including thorough risk of
403 bias assessments, grading of evidence and statistical methods, we do recognise its limitations.
404 All of the studies had a high risk of bias which makes the validity of their results questionable.
405 Severity of osteoarthritis was not taken into account for the results and the strength of evidence
406 from the network meta-analysis was not graded. Additionally, some of the surgical treatments
407 were only represented by single (high risk of bias) RCTs in the network meta-analysis.
408 Nevertheless, all studies reported long-term results (follow up 1 year or longer) and used
409 clinically relevant outcome measures.

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CONCLUSION

We recommend that a simple trapeziectomy without a concomitant soft tissue procedure (ligament reconstruction and/or tendon interposition) should be the preferred procedure for patients with thumb CMCJ arthritis requiring surgery. Routine post-operative radiographic surveillance specifically looking for thumb metacarpal collapse appears unnecessary as it does not appear to be clinically relevant. Finally, even though CMCJ replacement and arthrodesis may be as effective as a trapeziectomy (if not superior) in terms of function and strength, recommendations on their use cannot be made due to concerns about higher complication rates. High-quality, double-blinded studies comparing different surgical treatments are needed to increase the certainty of evidence. This is especially the case for joint replacement and arthrodesis, which are poorly represented in the literature.

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