Criteria-based return-to-sport testing helps identify functional deficits in young athletes following posterior labral repair but may not reduce recurrence or increase return to play

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Running Title: Return to sport testing following posterior stabilization

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1 ABSTRACT

2

Background: The purpose of this study was to compare recurrent instability and return to play
(RTP) in young athletes who underwent clearance to full activity based on a validated return to
sport (RTS) test to those who underwent time-based clearance following primary posterior labral
repair.

7 Methods: This was a retrospective review of athletes with posterior shoulder instability who
8 underwent primary arthroscopic posterior labral repair from 2012-2021 with minimum one-year
9 follow-up. Patients who underwent RTS testing at a minimum of 5 months postoperatively were
10 compared to a historic control cohort of patients who underwent time-based clearance.

11 **Results:** There were 30 patients in the RTS cohort and 67 patients in the control cohort (mean

12 follow-up 32.1 and 38.6 months, respectively). Of the 30 patients who underwent RTS testing,

13 11 passed without failing any sections, 10 passed while failing one section, and 9 failed the RTS

14 test by failing 2+ sections. No differences were found between the RTS and control cohort in the

15 incidence of recurrent instability (6.7% vs 9.0%), overall RTP (94.7% vs 94.3%), RTP at the

same level as prior to injury (84.2% vs 80.0%), recurrent pain/weakness (23.3% vs 25.4%), or

17 revision surgery (0% vs 3.0%), respectively.

Discussion: While return to sports testing in young athletes after posterior labral repair did not reduce recurrence or improve return to play compared to time-based clearance, two-thirds of athletes who underwent testing failed at least one section, indicating some functional deficit. Thus, return to sport testing may help guide postoperative rehabilitation following posterior stabilization.

23 Level of Evidence: Level III; Retrospective Cohort Comparison; Prognosis Study

25 athlete; posterior labral repair

26 Posterior shoulder instability is a relatively uncommon condition in the general population,

27 accounting for 2-10% of all shoulder instability^{2,8,22}. However, this incidence is as high as 22%

in athletes, especially those participating in contact or overhead sports^{8,19}. In overhead athletes,

29 posterior labral injury is often insidious due to repetitive microtrauma and can present in a subtle

30 manner including decline in performance²⁹. Contact athletes, on the other hand, often experience

31 acute instability episodes due to blunt force in a provocative arm position^{8,19}. In both

32 mechanisms, compromise of the posteroinferior capsule and the posterior labrum often co-

33 occur^{2,20}. Thus, when surgical management is indicated, arthroscopic posterior labral repair and

34 capsulorrhaphy have been shown to have high rates of return to play (RTS), between 80-100%

35 for collision athletes and 85.2-100% for overhead athletes^{12,17}.

36

Despite these relatively high rates of RTS after posterior stabilization, recurrent instability occurs 37 38 at a rate of up to 11% in athletes and 17.7% in the general population^{13,27}. Additionally, many athletes fail to return to sport at the same level as prior to injury^{7,18}. After posterior shoulder 39 40 stabilization, surgeons commonly clear patients for full activity on a time-from-surgery basis, 41 often at around 6 months postoperatively. Recent literature using a validated, objective RTS testing protocol, however, has demonstrated that around 90% of competitive athletes still have 42 43 residual and functional limitations at this timepoint following anterior shoulder stabilization surgeries^{11,24,31}. Thus, clearance to full activity based on a validated RTS testing protocol, rather 44 45 than time-based clearance, may be a promising avenue for increasing rates of return to sport and 46 reducing recurrent posterior instability following arthroscopic posterior stabilization.

47

48	Clearance based on RTS testing has been extensively validated after ACL reconstruction, with an
49	84% reduction in re-injury risk compared to time-based clearance and is widely considered
50	standard of care following these procedures ¹⁴ . Furthermore, a recent study by Drummond et al
51	found that full clearance via criteria-based RTS testing after arthroscopic Bankart repair was
52	associated with a four-fold reduction of recurrent anterior instability compared to athletes cleared
53	via time-based clearance at a minimum of 1-year follow-up ¹¹ .
54	
55	Thus, the purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of the same return to sport testing
56	protocol on recurrence and return to play (RTP) rates following arthroscopic posterior shoulder
57	stabilization surgery compared to time-based clearance. We hypothesized that patients who
58	underwent RTS testing and were subsequently cleared would have a lower rate of recurrent
59	instability and a higher rate of RTP compared to those who were cleared to return based on time
60	from surgery.
61 62	METHODS Study Design and Patient Selection
64	This was a retrospective cohort study that reviewed the electronic medical records of patients
65	who underwent primary arthroscopic posterior labral repair (with or without SLAP repair)
66	performed by two fellowship-trained orthopedic sports medicine surgeons at our institution from
67	2012-2021. A waiver of consent was granted by the Institutional Review Board at the University
68	of Pittsburgh. All patients underwent arthroscopic posterior stabilization in the lateral decubitus
69	position using standard arthroscopic techniques with labral repair and capsulorrhaphy. A
70	concomitant SLAP repair was performed following diagnostic arthroscopic confirmation of

SLAP tear extension. SLAP repairs were performed using arthroscopic knotless suture anchor
techniques through a low-profile percutaneous portal medial to the rotator cuff cable.

A minimum 1-year follow-up time from initial surgical stabilization was utilized for an individual to be included in the electronic medical record review. Exclusion criteria included open or revision procedures, patients above the age of 30 years at the time of surgery, patients with general joint hyperlaxity (score \geq 4 according to the Beighton criteria¹⁶, patients with glenoid bone loss, patients with concomitant rotator cuff injury, patients undergoing isolated anterior stabilization with or without concomitant SLAP tears, and patients with multidirectional instability.

81

82 Patients were separated into two groups based on whether they underwent criteria-based return to 83 sport testing (RTS group) or time-based clearance (historic control group). The historic control 84 group consisted of patients from 2012 to the end of 2016, whereas the RTS group consisted of 85 patients from 2017 onwards, when the test was initiated and routinely implemented for all 86 shoulder instability surgery. All patients in both groups initially underwent a standardized 87 postoperative rehabilitation protocol for posterior labral repair surgery, which included three 88 main phases, before either undergoing RTS testing or time-based clearance. Phase 1 (weeks 0-6) 89 involved sling immobilization for 4 weeks with the initiation of pendulums at 2 weeks followed 90 by formal physical therapy with passive range of motion (PROM) at 4 weeks, with limitations on 91 internal rotation. Phase 2 (generally week 6 to week 12) involved initiation of active range of 92 motion (AROM) with slow progressive strengthening via submaximal tissue loading, with a

focus on dynamic stabilization and neuromuscular control. Phase 3 (generally week 12 to week
focused on the normalization of strength and neuromuscular control.

95

96 Between 5 and 6 months postoperatively, patients in the RTS group underwent criteria-based 97 return to sport testing after approval from the surgeon during routine clinic visit. The RTS test 98 was performed by a physical therapist using a previously validated protocol, similar to the one 99 used by Drummond et al^{11,24,31}. The battery of tests utilized in this study and their scoring were 100 rigorously studied by Popchak et al and were concluded to have high validity and reliability for assessing shoulder function in young athletes²⁴. The tests measured external and internal rotation 101 102 strength with isokinetic and isometric methods as well as endurance with resisted external rotation. Isokinetic testing was measured on a Biodex System dynamometer (Shirley, NY, USA) 103 104 using peak torque at 60 and 180 degrees per second (Figure 1). All Biodex testing was performed 105 in a modified neutral position. Isometric external and internal rotation was measured at 0 and 90 106 degrees (Figure 2a and 2b). Patients were instructed to move through the range of IR and ER 107 with maximum speed and power in both directions. The strength assessment at 60 degrees per 108 second consisted of 5 repetitions, while the assessment at 180 degrees per second consisted of 10 109 repetitions, with a rest period of 1-2 min between tests. The peak torque generated for concentric 110 movements of ER and IR at 60 and 180 degrees per second were taken as the measure of 111 isokinetic strength. Participants were asked if they experienced any discomfort and if they could 112 continue after each movement. The external rotation endurance test involved repetitions to 113 failure with 5% of body weight at 0 and 90 degrees of abduction. For all strength assessments, 114 patients were required to reach 90% of the values from the contralateral extremity in order to 115 pass. Two additional tests of function were utilized, including the closed kinetic chain upper

116 extremity stability (CKCUES) test and the unilateral seated shot-put (USS) test. The CKCUES 117 consisted of touching the contralateral hand and returning to a base push-up position over 3 118 rounds of 15 active seconds with 45-second breaks (Figure 3). Touches per 15 seconds were 119 averaged over three trials. Subjects passed with a minimum of 21 touches. The USS was a 120 distance-based test of throwing a 2.72 kg medicine ball with a goal of achieving 90% of the 121 contralateral side's toss, while adjusting for hand dominance (Figure 4). The distance was 122 averaged over three trials with 30-second rest periods between trials. 123 124 The results of the testing were conveyed to the surgeon for final approval for full clearance.

Patients who passed all components of the RTS test were cleared to return to sports. Patients who 125 126 failed only one component were given 4-6 weeks delayed clearance to return to sports after 127 focusing on the specific deficit with the physical therapist during the intervening time period. 128 Patients who failed multiple components of the test underwent additional formal rehabilitation to 129 address deficits over a period of 4-6 weeks and repeated the test before final clearance. Once an 130 athlete passed and was cleared to return to sport, final return to play was individualized based on 131 the sport and injury pattern, including SLAP tear characteristics. For instance, a baseball player 132 with a Type VIII SLAP repair of the throwing was cleared for a progressive throwing program 133 after 5 months once they passed the RTS test, while a contact player was cleared to return to 134 unrestricted activity with final return to play determined by the athletic training staff and 135 coaches. This is especially important, as SLAP tears with posterior extension may represent 136 different injury patterns than traumatic posterior inferior labral tears with SLAP tear extensions. 137

Patients in the historic control group did not undergo RTS testing and instead, were cleared for
sports at a minimum of 6 months postoperatively at the discretion of the surgeon based on
physical examination of symmetric ROM and strength to contralateral as well as lack of
apprehension on instability testing. Clearance was delayed for patients who expressed
apprehension or did not have adequate ROM and strength compared to contralateral side.
Data Collection and Outcomes

Baseline demographic variables of age, body mass index (BMI), hand dominance, and sex were recorded, along with activity status including sport played, position played, contact vs noncontact athlete, competitive athlete, and overhead athlete. Injury variables included side of injury, diagnosis, SLAP repair, number of anchors used, and whether or not RTS testing was employed.

149

150 The primary outcomes were recurrent instability (defined as having at least one documented 151 recurrent subluxation/dislocation episode or physical exam demonstrating instability), RTP rate 152 (both overall and at the same level as prior to injury), recurrent pain (defined as >3/10 pain on 153 VAS) or weakness (self-reported and <5/5 on manual muscle testing), and revision surgery. 154 Secondary outcomes were patient-reported outcomes (PROs) including pre and postoperative 155 visual analog scale (VAS) and subjective shoulder value (SSV). VAS is a self-reported measure 156 of pain from 0 to 10 taken at all clinic visits, with 0 being no pain and 10 being the worst pain. 157 SSV is a self-reported measure from 0 to 100% taken at all clinic visits where the patient 158 expresses their shoulder function as a percent of an entirely normal shoulder. All outcomes were 159 collected at final follow-up during clinic visits.

160 Statistical Analysis

161	Outcomes and demographic variables for each group were compared using either independent		
162	samples T-test for parametric continuous data, and Chi-squared or Fisher's Exact Test for		
163	categorical data. A post-hoc power analysis was conducted for recurrence rates. With the effect		
164	size observed and a power of 0.8 to determine the true difference in recurrence at an alpha of		
165	0.05, the study would need upwards of 4800 patients. All statistical analysis was performed		
166	using SPSS, version 26 (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA) by an individual that did not participate		
167	in data collection. Two-tailed P values <0.05 were considered statistically significant.		
168 169 170	RESULTS Study Cohort A total of 97 patients met the inclusion criteria and were included in the study. Of these 97		
171	patients, 30 underwent RTS testing and 67 underwent time-based clearance. There were no		
172	differences between the RTS and control group with regards to age (19.9 \pm 4.2 years vs 22.5 \pm		
173	4.7 years), BMI (27.2 \pm 3.9 vs 26.2 \pm 5.8), sex (80.0% vs 68.7% male), or proportion of		
174	overhead athletes (50.0% vs 44.8%) (Table 1). The RTS group, however, had a greater		
175	proportion of contact athletes (53.3% vs 28.4%; p=0.018) and competitive athletes (83.3% vs		
176	44.8%; p<0.001) than the control group. Mean final follow-up was similar between the RTS and		
177	control cohort at 32.1 and 38.6 months after surgery, respectively (Table 1). Return to play		
178	outcomes were only available for 19 patients in the RTS testing cohort and for 35 patients in the		
179	control cohort.		

180

181 With regards to operative characteristics, both groups had a similar proportion of concomitant

182 SLAP repairs. In all cases, at least 2 suture anchors were used, with no difference in the mean

183 number of anchors used between groups (Table 1).

184

185 Return to Sport Testing and Clearance Outcomes

Return to sport testing occurred at a mean time of 5.7 months postoperatively. For the isokinetic
testing, isometric testing, endurance testing, and the USS test, a shoulder index score was
calculated by dividing the value for the involved shoulder by the value for the uninvolved
shoulder. Shoulder index scores ≥0.90 were considered "passing" scores for these assessments.
Passing of the CKCUES test was determined by averaging ≥22 repetitions over 3 trials of the
test.

192 Isometric strength testing was not completed in one patient and isokinetic testing was not 193 completed in another patient. Of the 30 patients who tested, 11 passed the RTS test without 194 failing any sections and 10 passed the RTS test while failing one section (Table 2). The 11 195 patients that passed all sections of the test were cleared to return to sports but the 10 that failed 196 one section were asked to continue physical therapy to address their particular deficit for 4 weeks 197 and then cleared (without needing to re-test). Nine patients failed RTS testing by failing two or 198 more sections and thus, were not cleared to return to sport until re-test after a minimum of 4 199 weeks with further recommendations for full participation based on the repeat test. These nine 200 patients all passed their repeat test. Isokinetic testing at 60 and 180 degrees per second proved 201 most challenging for athletes, with only 51.7% passing both in ER and 55.2% passing both in IR, 202 indicating that for those who failed, isokinetic strength in both ER and IR were not at least 90% 203 that of the contralateral side. Mean time to clearance in this cohort was 6.5 months 204 postoperatively.

205

206	Conversely, all patients in the control group were eventually cleared at a mean of 6.6 months
207	postoperatively. Of the 67 patients, 12 (17.9%) were determined to have residual deficits at the
208	6-month postoperative clinic visit, requiring delayed clearance.
209	Clinical Outcomes
210	No differences were found between the RTS and control cohort in the incidence of recurrent
211	instability (6.7% vs 9.0%; p=1.00), overall RTP (94.7% vs 94.3%; p=0.94), RTP at the same
212	level as prior to injury (84.2% vs 80.0%; p=0.70), recurrent pain or weakness (23.3% vs 25.4%;
213	p=0.83), or revision surgery (0% vs 3.0%; p=1.00), respectively (Table 3).
214	
215	Of the 2 patients with recurrent instability in the RTS group, both were overhead athletes (1
216	football quarterback, 1 tennis player) and neither required revision surgery. The football
217	quarterback failed two sections of the RTS test, while the tennis player failed one section of the
218	RTS test. Of the 6 patients with recurrent instability in the control group, 4 were overhead
219	athletes (1 baseball player, 1 softball player, 1 football quarterback, 1 weightlifter) and 2 were
220	not (2 football players). In the control group, 2 revision surgeries were performed, one in the
221	softball player and one in the non-overhead football player.

222

In the RTS cohort, there was one patient that was unable to return to play (1 baseball player) and two additional patients that were unable to return to play at the same level (1 softball player and 1 wrestler). Two of the three patients in this cohort that did not RTP at the same level were overhead athletes. Two of the three patients failed one section of the RTS test while one patient failed two sections. In the control cohort, there were two patients that were unable to return to play (1 softball player and 1 football player) and 5 additional patients that were unable to return

to play at the same level (3 football players, 1 volleyball player, 1 wrestler). Two of the sevenpatients in this cohort that did not RTP at the same level were overhead athletes.

231

232 No differences were found between groups with regards to preoperative SSV or VAS. At final

follow-up, SSV was greater in the RTS cohort compared to the control cohort (94±8% vs

234 88±14%; p=0.038) while VAS was similar between cohorts ($0.9 \pm 1.8 \text{ vs } 0.9 \pm 1.8$; p=0.92)

235 (Table 3).

236 **DISCUSSION**

The main finding of this study is that athletes who underwent RTS testing following arthroscopic 237 posterior labral repair for posterior shoulder instability did not have significantly different rates 238 239 of recurrent instability, RTP (overall and at same level as prior to injury), pain/weakness, or 240 revision surgery compared to patients who underwent time-based clearance with overall similar, 241 excellent outcomes in both cohorts. While RTS testing does not appear to have the same impact 242 regarding recurrence rates following arthroscopic posterior stabilization compared to anterior 243 stabilization, 2/3 of our athletes failed at least one component of the test, while 1/3 failed two or 244 more components. Additionally, all the patients in the RTS testing cohort that had recurrence or 245 failed to return to play at the same level failed at least one section of the RTS test. Finally, 246 postoperative SSV was significantly higher in the RTS testing cohort, indicating that perhaps 247 patients felt more secure in their shoulder function, having validated it through testing. 248 These results suggests that RTS testing may still be helpful in guiding postoperative 249 rehabilitation and may indicate which patients are at higher risk for negative outcomes following 250 clearance.

251

252 To our knowledge, there is a paucity of available literature analyzing the impact of a criteria-253 based RTS test on outcomes after posterior shoulder stabilization surgery. Prior studies have 254 investigated its use in anterior shoulder instability. Drummond et al found that patients who 255 underwent RTS testing following arthroscopic Bankart repair had over a four-fold reduction in 256 the rate of recurrent instability than those who did not undergo testing¹¹. Their findings were 257 similar to those in the ACL reconstruction population, where patients who did not meet clinical 258 discharge criteria before returning to sport had a 4 times greater risk of ACL graft rupture^{14,15}. 259 There may be multiple reasons for the contrasting results in posterior instability. First, posterior 260 instability is a less common occurrence than anterior instability, with much lower rates of subsequent recurrence⁸. Second, posterior subluxations/recurrent posterior instability often 261 262 presents in a more subtle manner than recurrent anterior instability, potentially manifesting as 263 gradual decline in performance rather than acute subluxation/dislocation, and is likely better tolerated^{23,25}. Therefore, measurable differences with a modifiable factor, such as return to sport 264 265 testing, for recurrent instability following arthroscopic posterior stabilization may be too subtle 266 to detect. Lastly, our test group had a statistically higher proportion of contact and competitive 267 athletes compared to our control group. It is also possible that RTS testing does have a 268 significant impact on recurrence in a high-risk population following posterior stabilization and 269 normalizes rates to a more general population versus no difference. Additionally, we believe this 270 is one of the first studies addressing whether RTS testing affects rates of return to play overall 271 and at the same level as prior injury. Future prospective studies with matched cohorts are 272 necessary to further elucidate the effects of these tests in shoulder instability.

273

274	The overall incidence of recurrent instability in this study was 8.2% (2/30 in the RTS cohort and
275	6/67 in the control cohort), which is consistent with a systematic review by DeLong et al
276	identifying an average recurrence rate of 8.1% after arthroscopic repair ⁹ . Six of the eight patients
277	with recurrence in this study were overhead athletes, while only three of eight were contact
278	athletes. These results are consistent with the literature, as the repetitive microtrauma from the
279	compressive and distractive forces during overhead motions can cause weakening and
280	contractures in the posterior capsulolabral complex and associated stabilizers ^{1,6,26,28} .
281	
282	The overall incidence of return to play in this study was 94.4% (18/19 in the RTS cohort and
283	33/35 in the control cohort) while incidence of return to play at the same level as prior to injury
284	was 81.5% (16/19 in the RTS cohort and 28/35 in the control cohort). Of the 10 patients that
285	failed to RTP at the same level as prior to injury, 4 were overhead athletes while 6 were contact
286	athletes. This distinction between RTP and RTP at the same level as prior to injury may be useful
287	in distinguishing insidious posterior labral re-injury, especially in overhead athletes, where
288	repetitive trauma during the motion arc can cause a gradual decline in performance rather than
289	acute subluxation/dislocation episodes. Rates of return to play have been characterized in the
290	literature, ranging from 57.9% to 100%, with a systematic review by Matar et al reporting a
291	pooled weight of 86.9% ¹⁷ . However, return to play at pre-injury level is lower, ranging from
292	47.4% to 100%, with a pooled weight of $74.9\%^{17}$.

293

Current literature on posterior shoulder instability is focused on how preoperative variables and
surgical technique influence outcomes. Studies by Bradley et al have elucidated risk factors for
recurrent posterior instability and revision repair including female sex, dominant shoulder injury,

concomitant rotator cuff injury, and smaller glenoid bone width^{4,5,30}. Furthermore, Owens et al
and Dickens et al revealed that patients with baseline glenoid dysplasia and bone loss as well as
glenoid retroversion>10% are associated with posterior instability and greater recurrence after
initial surgery^{3,10,21}.

301

302 However, modifiable risk factors have been identified as well, including number of anchors used, 303 type of sports participation, postoperative rehabilitation protocols, and clearance to return to 304 sport^{5,8,9}. The mean time to return to sport in the time-based clearance cohort was 6.6 months, consistent with the literature, reporting ranges between 4.3 and 7.7 months¹⁷. Although RTS 305 306 testing in this study did not influence recurrence of posterior instability, as it does for anterior 307 instability, it is important to note that across all studies, a majority of athletes did not meet the 308 expected goals for their operative shoulder at time of testing. While 63.3% of athletes failed at 309 least one component of the RTS test in this study, Drummond et al found that 83.3% of patients with anterior instability failed at least one component¹¹, and Wilson et al also found that 88.4% 310 311 of patients with any type of instability failed at least one component³¹. In this study, isokinetic 312 deficits were most apparent, with only 51.7% passing ER and 55.2% passing IR at both 60 and 313 180 degrees per second. Interestingly, however, over 90% of patients passed both functional 314 tests, suggesting that athletes may be able to compensate functionally for focal strength deficits. 315 These findings are also consistent with those of Drummond and Wilson et al, calling into 316 question whether physical examination maneuvers during clinic visits are able to discern such deficits^{11,31}. The merit of a formal criteria-based return to sport testing protocol is the ability to 317 318 detect deficits through objective measures of strength and range of motion, that may otherwise 319 be well compensated and go unnoticed. In this study, all of the patients in the RTS testing cohort

that either had recurrence or failed to return to play at the same level failed at least one section of the RTS test. Therefore, the results of RTS testing may guide rehabilitation and demonstrate which patients are at risk of negative outcomes following clearance. Based on individual test results, providers may tailor their physical therapy and provide individualized clearance. These benefits must be weighed against the time and financial resources testing requires in order to determine whether RTS testing or time-based clearance should be employed.

326

327 While the RTS test in this study was able to identify residual deficits in nearly 2/3 of the athletes 328 in the RTS cohort, future studies may focus on curating a test that is further tailored to athletes 329 with posterior instability. Specifically, as over 90% of athletes passed both functional tests in this 330 study, incorporating different functional tests that challenge patients more during posterior 331 loading may further tease out patients not ready for full clearance. Other avenues of 332 improvement include more reliable and valid endurance tests for the rotator cuff and scapular 333 musculature. The authors of this study directly involved in testing noted that measuring ER 334 endurance with repetitions to failure showed lower than acceptable reliability due to difficulty in uniform termination of testing across sessions²⁴. 335

336

This study is not without limitations. First, due to its retrospective observational design, the study is subject to confounding bias, attrition bias, and selection bias due to exclusion of those without sufficient follow-up. Second, due to the relatively novel utilization of return to sport testing as well as the low incidence of posterior shoulder instability, this study may be subject to Type II error. However, the very small observed effect size of 2.3% makes us fairly confident that there is no clinically important difference between the two cohorts with regards to

343 recurrence rates, as a very large sample size (thousands of patients) would be needed to observe 344 a statistical difference. Third, a minimum of 1 year follow-up was employed for this study and 345 may not be sufficient to observe recurrence. However, the mean follow-up time was well above 346 30 months for each group with no differences found between groups. Fourth, the RTS cohort had 347 more contact athletes and competitive athletes, which may influence rates of recurrence. Finally, 348 this study did not report on rates of return to sport due to insufficient data. Overall, given low 349 recurrence and reoperation rates, future multi-center prospective studies may be needed to detect 350 further differences between RTS testing and time-based clearance after arthroscopic surgery for 351 posterior shoulder instability. 352 CONCLUSION 353 While criteria-based on return to sports testing in young athletes after posterior labral repair did 354 not appear to reduce recurrence or improve return to play compared to time-based clearance, 355 nearly two-thirds of all athletes who underwent return to sport testing failed at least one section 356 of the test, indicating some level of functional deficit. Thus, return to sport testing may still be a 357 useful tool for guiding postoperative rehabilitation following arthroscopic posterior stabilization, 358 although further work may be needed to refine testing procedures to improve its reliability and 359 validity. 360 REFERENCES 361 1. Altchek DW, Dines DM. Shoulder Injuries in the Throwing Athlete. J Am Acad Orthop 362 Surg. 1995;3(3):159-165. 363 2. Antosh IJ, Tokish JM, Owens BD. Posterior Shoulder Instability. Sports Health. 364 2016;8(6):520-526. doi:10.1177/1941738116672446

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458	Table and Figure Legends
459	Figure 1. Isokinetic internal and external rotation test using Biodex dynamometer
460	Figure 2a. Isometric external and internal rotation test at 0 degrees abduction
461	Figure 2b. Isometric external and internal rotation test at 90 degrees abduction
462	Figure 3. Closed kinetic chain upper extremity stability test
463	Figure 4. Unilateral seated shot-put test
464	Table 1. Demographic characteristics of study cohorts
465	Abbreviations: RTS=return to sport testing; SLAP= Superior Labrum Anterior and Posterior;
466	n=number of patients, BMI = body mass index. Significance set at p value < 0.05 (bold)
467	Table 2. Criteria-based return to sport testing results
468	Abbreviations: ER=external rotation; IR=internal rotation; ERET=external rotation endurance
469	test; CKCUE=closed kinetic chain upper extremity; n=number of patients
470	Table 3. Comparison of outcomes between cohorts
471	Abbreviations: RTS=return to sport testing; n=number of patients; SSV=subjective shoulder
472	value; $VAS = visual$ analog scale for pain. Significance set at p value < 0.05 (bold)

Characteristic	RTS	Control (n=67)	p-value
	(n=30)		
Age (years)	19.9 ± 4.2	22.5 ± 4.7	0.07
BMI (kg/m ²)	27.2 ± 3.9	26.2 ± 5.8	0.32
Sex (n, % Male)	24 (80.0%)	46 (68.7%)	0.25
Contact Athlete (n, %)	16 (53.3%)	19 (28.4%)	0.018
Competitive Athlete (n, %)	25 (83.3%)	30 (44.8%)	<0.001
Overhead Athlete (n, %)	15 (50.0%)	30 (44.8%)	0.34
SLAP Repair (%)	14 (46.7%)	23 (34.3%)	0.25
Suture Anchors (n)	4.8 ± 1.8	4.2 ± 1.5	0.10
Final Follow Up Time (months)	32.1 ± 17.2	38.6 ± 24.7	0.14

Result	n (%)
Pass (0 sections failed)	11 of 30 (36.7%)
Pass (1 section failed)	10 of 30 (33.3%)
Fail (2+ sections failed)	9 of 30 (30.0%)
Component	Pass, n (%)
Isokinetic	
ER at 60°/s	16 of 29 (55.2%)
ER at 180°/s	19 of 29 (65.5%)
ER at $60^{\circ}/s + 180^{\circ}/s$	15 of 29 (51.7%)
IR at 60°/s	17 of 29 (58.6%)
IR at 180°/s	20 of 29 (69.0%)
IR at $60^{\circ}/s + 180^{\circ}/s$	16 of 29 (55.2%)
Isometric	
ER at 0°	26 of 29 (89.7%)
ER at 90°	19 of 29 (65.5%)
IR at 0°	26 of 29 (89.7%)
IR at 90°	21 of 29 (72.4%)
ER/IR at 0°	26 of 19 (89.7%)
ER/IR at 90°	18 of 29 (62.1%)
ERET at 0°	18 of 23 (78.3%)
ERET while prone	17 of 23 (73.4%)
CKCUE	27 of 30 (90%)
Shot-put	28 of 30 (93.3%)

Outcome	RTS (n=30)	Control (n=67)	p-value
Preop SSV (%)	59 ± 18	64 ± 18	0.07
Postop SSV (%)	94 ± 8	88 ± 14	0.038
Preop VAS (0-10)	4.9 ± 1.8	5.0 ± 2.4	0.94
Postop VAS (0-10)	0.9 ± 1.8	0.9 ± 1.8	0.92
Recurrent Instability (n, %)	2 (6.7%)	6 (9.0%)	1.00
Football (n)	1	3	
Baseball/Softball (n)	0	2	
Weightlifting (n)	0		
Tennis (n)	1	0	
Recurrent Pain/Weakness (n, %)	7 (23.3%)	17 (25.4%)	0.83
Revision Surgery (n, %)	0 (0.0%)	2 (3.0%)	1.00
Football (n)	0	1	
Baseball/Softball (n)	0	1	
Return to Sport	18 (94.7%)	33 (94.3%)	0.94
	(n=19)	(n=35)	
Return to Sport at Same Level	16 (84.2%)	28 (80.0%)	0.70
	(n=19)	(n=35)	



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