

General

Current concepts of natural course and in management of medial epicondylitis: a clinical overview

Wojciech Konarski¹, Tomasz Poboży^{1a}, Kamil Poboży², Julia Domańska³, Klaudia Konarska⁴

¹ Department of Orthopedic Surgery, Ciechanów Hospital, 06-400 Ciechanów, Poland, ² Faculty of Medicine, Medical University of Warsaw, 01-938 Warsaw, Poland, ³ Central Clinical Hospital of the Ministry of Interior and Administration in Warsaw, 02-507 Warsaw, Poland, ⁴ Medical Rehabilitation Center, Sobieskiego 47D, 05-120 Legionowo, Poland

Keywords: medial epicondylitis, golfer's elbow, common flexor tendon, CFT, ME treatment

<https://doi.org/10.52965/001c.84275>

Orthopedic Reviews

Vol. 15, 2023

Medial epicondylitis (ME), called “golfer’s elbow”, is not frequent or serious disease but can cause symptoms that are bothersome in everyday life. Therefore knowledge about this condition may improve diagnostic-therapeutic process. In this article detailed information concerning pathophysiology and symptomatology of ME was described. Great attention was paid to issues related to the diagnosis of the disease both in terms of differentiation with other elbow disorders as well as examination techniques. Finally, current therapeutic options were presented in detail and their efficacy was discussed based on the available data.

INTRODUCTION

Epicondylitis is one of the most common elbow disorders which concern musculoskeletal system and occurs mainly when wrist flexion/extension followed by pronation/supination with the elbow is repeated for a long time period.¹ Such excessive joint overstrain results in micro-trauma at the origin of the tendons and this in turn lead to local tenderness, swelling and ulnar nerve irritation.² The first literature report on the epicondylitis comes from 1882 and the condition was then described as “lawn-tennis arm” because the disorder was observed in this sport players.³ Since that time the knowledge about this entity has spread and currently it is known that epicondylitis may occurred both laterally and medially. In lateral epicondylitis (LE), commonly called “tennis elbow”, the pathology arises at the origin of the extensor carpi radialis brevis but may extend to other tendons. In turn medial epicondylitis (ME), called “golfer’s elbow”, involves the muscles originating on the medial epicondyle of the humerus.⁴ Although the colloquial names of diseases suggest their close relationship with the type of sport practiced, these conditions are also observed in many people who perform other activities involving specific type of hand movement. Prevalence of ME is 5-10 times lower than LE and probably this is a reason for

minor knowledge and rather poor clinical data about this condition.⁵ Therefore this article reviews general information about ME as well as current diagnosis and treatment options.

MEDIAL EPICONDYLITIS

ANATOMY AND PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

The epicondyles are rounded bony protuberances at the distal end of the humerus. The medial epicondyle is located on the inside of the elbow and is attachment sites for five muscles and tendons which form the common flexor tendon (CFT). This musculotendinous structure includes (from proximal to distal): the pronator teres, the flexor carpi radialis, the palmaris longus, the flexor digitorum superficialis, and the flexor carpi ulnaris. Physiological attachment of the CFT to medial epicondyle of the humerus is presented on [Fig.1](#).

Normally, elbow joint performs the movements within the specified range: flexion 130-140°, extension 180°, as well as pronation 60-80° and supination 70-85°. However, chronic repetition of forearm pronation and wrist flexion lead to disorders which may involve almost whole CFT (except for palmaris longus), but the pronator teres and the

^a Corresponding author:
Tomasz Poboży, MD, Ph.D.,
Surgery Clinic, Department of Orthopaedic Surgery,
Ciechanów Hospital, Ciechanów, Poland, Ul.
Powstańców Wielkopolskich 2, 06-400 Ciechanów, Poland.
e-mail: tomasz.pobozy@onet.pl
mobile: +48 600 980 648

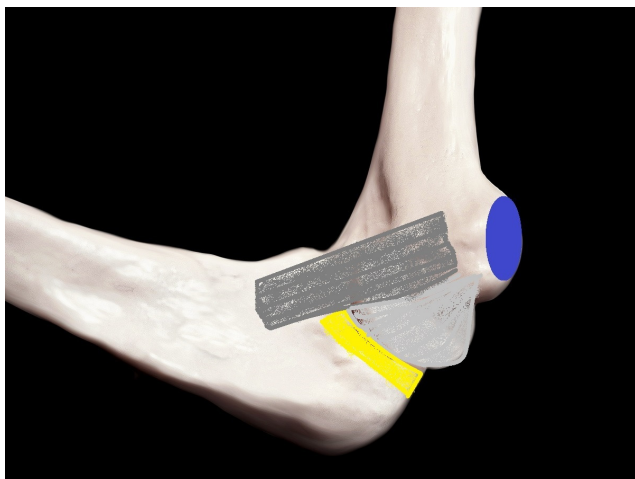


Figure 1. Anatomical diagram showing the site of common attachment of flexors (EFT) - blue area and the medial collateral ligament complex, dark-gray - anterior part, light-gray - posterior part, the transverse part is marked in yellow.

flexor carpi radialis were previously thought to be mostly affected.⁷⁻¹⁰

Initially, inflammatory process was considered to play main role in ME development,¹¹ and term suggesting an inflammation is still used, however histologically analysis showed that the mechanism of the disease is related to degeneration. Therefore, some specialists prefer the term tendonosis or tendinopathy, when describing elbow epicondylitis.⁸ The pathophysiology of ME involves supra-physiologic stress on the tendon that induces recurrent microtears and as a result angiofibroblastic hyperplasia occur.^{12,13} Vascular and fibroblastic elements replace the normal tendon, mucoid degenerates and reactive granulation tissue forms. Next, fibrosis or calcification can occur with decreasing collagen strength, scar tissue formation and thickening of the tendons.^{10,14-17} At this stage of the disease, patients are usually diagnosed. As the affected muscle attachment with a disturbed structure becomes more susceptible to further microtrauma, greater damage to the structure of the attachment may occur if the affected limb is subjected to further long-lasting unlimited activity.

Depending on whether the ulnar nerve is also affected, ME is classified into two subtypes: without (type 1) and with (type 2) ulnar involvement.^{7,18}

EPIDEMIOLOGY

In general population prevalence of ME is up to 1% however the disease may affect even 8% of patients in occupational settings.¹⁹⁻²³ The annual incidence of ME is estimated for 0.8-5.6/1000 person-years.²¹⁻²³ Medial-sided pathology is diagnosed in as many as 10% to 20% of patients with epicondylitis.²⁴⁻²⁶

Literature data are not consistent with regard to the gender relationship of ME prevalence. Some studies report that male and female are affected equally,^{8,21,23} but the others

indicate on ME occurrence twice as frequently in women.^{20,22}

Although the syndrome has been identified in patients ranging from 12 to 80 years old, it predominantly occurs in the fourth and fifth decades of life.^{8,21,27}

CAUSES AND RISK FACTORS

As was mentioned above, specific arm movements trigger ME development and are typical for some sports. Although disorder is termed as “golfer’s elbow”, it doesn’t occur only in golf players but also in other athletes who make the movements that stress the wrist and elbow joint e.g. rowers and players of baseball, tennis or bowling. Interestingly, 90% of ME cases are not at all sport-related but are diagnosed in some specific occupations. Work-related exposure criteria described in document which evaluate the work-relatedness of upper-extremity musculoskeletal disorders include: extreme flexion of the elbow, posture with extended elbows, posture with extreme pronation or supination of the elbow, high repetition of movements of the elbow, grasping or lifting of objects with high forces and/or combination of postures, movements and forces.²⁸ Other articles mention similar factors^{19,21,24,29} and systematic review of the literature clarifies that ME is associated with handling objects greater than 5 kg for 2 hours per day, objects greater than 10 kg more than 10 times per day, and repetitive movements and vibrating tools for more than 2 hours per day.³⁰ Another one study suggest that even just bending/straightening elbow for more than one hour a day may contribute to ME occurrence.²² Hence, the disorders occur among carpenters, bricklayers, hammerman’s, painters etc. but also among persons who type a lot.^{14,31} Despite common belief that mainly repetitive work cause ME, some authors concluded that there is no direct link between this risk factor and the disease^{19,21,32} unless repetition are combined with forceful activities or awkward posture.²¹ Moreover, forceful work was noted to be even more closely related to the risk of ME than repetitive work.¹⁹ Also a single traumatic event - like a violent contraction of the extensors when attempting extremal exertion, or a twisting injury-may contribute to the disorder.⁸

As might be expected, ME occurs more often in persons with other work-related upper-limb disorders, in particular, shoulder tendinitis, LE and carpal tunnel syndrome.¹⁹ Among non-movement related factors, age 40 or older, smoking, obesity and psychological distress were described to be associated with ME development.^{21,22}

SYMPTOMS

Although ME is not life-threatening and does not cause severe disability, it may be very bothersome in everyday life. The main and primary symptoms for ME are pain and tenderness. The pain can come on suddenly or gradually, be intermittent or persistent and localized at the inner side of the elbow, that is at muscle-tendon junction or at insertion points of the wrist flexors in the elbow region. Sometimes pain radiate distally to the forearm. It typically worsens with certain movements like forearm motion, gripping,

or throwing but may also occur at rest, especially in the acute phase.^{7,33,34} Other symptoms include joint stiffness, weakness of hand and wrist and also numbness or tingling which may radiate into one or more fingers (usually the ring and little fingers) especially when concomitant ulnar neuropathy exists.^{29,34,35} Initially the range of motion can be full, but in more chronic cases limitation of wrist extension and a flexion contracture may occurred.^{36,37}

Symptoms are often provoked by the elbow and/or wrist flexion or grasping or lifting of objects (i.e. by supination and pronation movements of the forearm upon elbow extension).^{35,38}

About three quarters of the patients are symptomatic in their dominant arms^{8,9} but some research outcomes indicate on insignificant association between the side affected by ME and worker's handedness.¹⁹

DIAGNOSIS

The diagnosis of "golfer's elbow" is clinical and requires a careful medical interviewing of patient and physical examination. Radiographic and imaging studies are necessary rather to distinguish ME from other possible causes of medial elbow discomfort.^{8,39}

Interview should apply to patients history and concern either repetitive elbow use, gripping, valgus stress or an acute traumatic blow.⁴⁰ It is estimated that about 30% of cases is associated with an acute injury, whereas 70% has a more insidious onset.⁹ Information on the occurrence of symptoms and their duration must also be obtained.

According to case definitions criteria for upper-extremity musculoskeletal disorders which are based on symptoms and physical examination signs, ME may be recognizes if pain is at least intermittent, directly located around the medial epicondyle and activity dependent. Symptoms should be present at the time of testing or occur at least for four days during the last seven days. Clinical evaluation should reveal also local pain during ME test which is performed with patients elbow extended and fully supinated. The examiner puts one hand on the patients ventral side of the hand, stabilizes the elbow with other hand and asks patient to move hand to palmar flexion against resistance. Pain on resisted wrist flexion and pronation is the most sensitive physical exam finding.^{18,35,41-43} Moreover, on physical examination, there may be swelling, erythema or warmth in acute cases, but chronic ME presents abnormalities rarely. The tenderness is induced by palpation over the five to ten millimeters distal and anterior to the medial epicondyle, especially near the CFT. Forearm pronation or forceful grip may be worse compared with that of the contralateral side and may provoke elbow pain.^{31,44-46} When examining overhead athletes, it is important to evaluate for ulnar neuritis and ulnar collateral ligament instability, which may also coexist.⁸ A provocative test to aid in the diagnosis is exacerbation of pain with resisted pronation of the forearm with wrist exion. A provocative test to aid in the diagnosis is exacerbation of pain with resisted pronation of the forearm with wrist exion.

In addition to above case definitions criteria and accompanying symptoms, Polk's tests may be employed to assess

for ME. Seating patients has elbow flexed about 100° and forearm supinated. Examiner asks patient to grab and lift the object of approx. 2.5 kg. Pain on the medial epicondyle makes test positive.^{43,47}

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

Diagnosis of ME may be clear on physical examination and history, however, it is rather uncommon disease with un-specific symptoms, so the entity can be confused with other sources of elbow pain^{40,48} that were described below.

CUBITAL TUNNEL SYNDROME/ ULNAR NEURITIS

Cubital tunnel syndrome is the second most common compression neuropathy. The ulnar nerve courses behind the medial epicondyle so the pressure or stretching in this area may affect the shape of the cubital tunnel what cause a pain.⁴⁰ However, majority of patients report sensory loss as the first symptom. Numbness and tingling and/or weakness can also occur.^{40,49}

Diagnosis of cubital tunnel syndrome may be facilitated with Tinel test which involves direct gentle compression over the nerve course at the elbow. Test is positive when sensation of tingling and paresthesias occurs.^{24,40,41,44}

ULNAR COLLATERAL LIGAMENT INJURY

Injury to the medial collateral ligament (MCL) occurs mainly in athletes who throw overhead because the anterior part of the MCL is the primary restraint to valgus stress during overhead throwing. Disorder leads to valgus elbow instability and occurrence of pop sensation over the medial elbow.^{41,50,51}

The most important test for MCL injury is valgus stress test called also elbow abduction stress test which involve palpating of the medial joint line of symptomatic elbow and contralateral side to compare them for laxity or instability against valgus forces. Valgus stress should be applied against an elbow flexed 20-30°, and then the amount of opening and the subjective quality of the end point is assessed. Test is positive when a firm end point is absent and joint space opens more than 3 mm or patient feels pain.^{14, 48} Injury of MCL may be also confirmed with positive result on moving valgus stress test or milking maneuver.^{41,43} An ultrasonographic picture of MCL is presented in [Figure 3](#).

CERVICAL RADICULOPATHY

Patients with neurologic disorders should also be examined for cervical radiculopathy, which is a dysfunction of a nerve root of the cervical spine. The C7 and C6 cervical nerve roots are the most commonly affected. The typical symptoms of cervical radiculopathy are neck and arm discomfort of insidious onset but also sensory changes along the involved nerve root dermatome, including tingling, numbness or loss of sensation may be present. Confirmation of cervical radiculopathy may be possible with the foraminal compression test (or Spurling test). It is performed by applying downward pressure on the head of patient who has the neck extended and the head rotated. The test is positive if pain radiates into the limb ipsilateral to the side to which

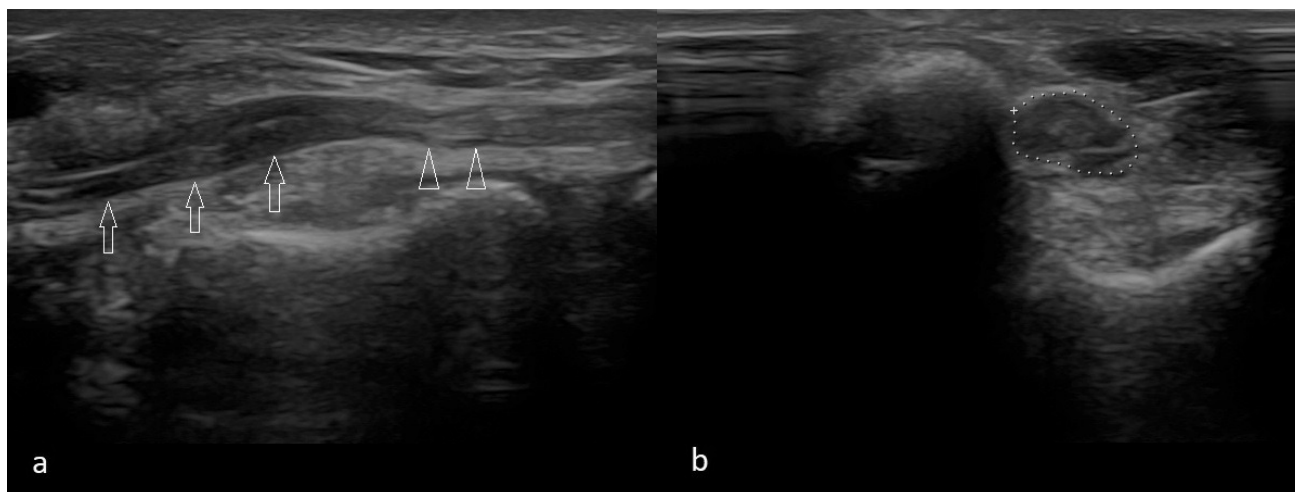


Figure 2. Ulnar nerve neuropathy, a - long axis view, arrows - swollen part of the ulnar nerve, arrow heads - narrowed part of the nerve, b - short axis view, dotted area - swollen part of the nerve.

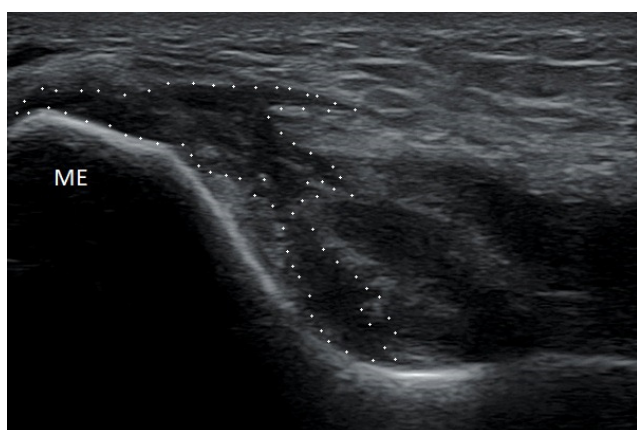


Figure 3. Post-traumatic scarrifications in the CFT attachment and in within the medial collateral humero-ulnar ligament – dotted area, ME – medial epicondyle.

the head is rotated. As C6 and C7 radiculopathy leads to muscle weakness, it may predispose to ME development.^{52, 53}

GANGLION CYST

Another cause of elbow pain may be ganglion cyst which is a benign soft tissue swellings. It is rather unusual lesions which typically arise from the ulnohumeral joint capsule. The etiology of ganglia remain unclear, but degenerative changes at the joint and repeated minor trauma seems to be a favorable factor.⁵⁴ As the ganglion may mimics epicondylitis or cubital tunnel syndrome, an incorrect diagnosis may be made. Therefore, ultrasonographic evaluation or magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) may be particularly helpful in proper evaluation of pain source.⁵⁵⁻⁵⁷

IMAGING DIAGNOSTICS

In some cases radiographic or imaging studies may be necessary to help distinguish causes of medial elbow pain.

RADIOGRAPHY

Plain radiographs of the elbow in ME patients are usually normal, however it may demonstrate sclerotic changes in chronic cases and collateral ligament calcification in throwing athletes. A lateral X-ray is also useful to eliminate alternate diagnoses including medial epicondyle fracture, elbow arthritis, and deformity.^{7,29}

ULTRASONOGRAPHY

Ultrasonography (USG) is not essential to diagnose ME because in majority of cases it demonstrate normal findings, however in up to 25% USG may help in diagnosis. It was showed that a sonogram performed by a professionals may have sensitivity, specificity, and positive and negative predictive values over 90% for diagnosis of ME, but it is noteworthy that diagnostic efficacy of ultrasonography is highly dependent on the operator's experience.^{7,24,58}

Nevertheless, in each case the technique is crucial. Proper imaging can be obtained if the tested limb is in flexion to 90 degrees and the forearm is in intermediate rotation. The probe should be positioned along the long axis of the forearm in such a way that it lies slightly on the humeral medial epicondyle. By rotating the probe 90 degrees a cross-section can be visualized. A normal flexor attachment has a typical fibrous structure, intermediate echogenicity, and uniform thickness.

In patients with ME, USG may show thickening and heterogeneity of the common extensor tendon as well as hypoechoic or anechoic areas of focal tendon degeneration (Fig. 4).

With more advanced tendinopathy, ruptures and evidence of calcification of the CFT (Fig. 5) or MCL, may be observed.

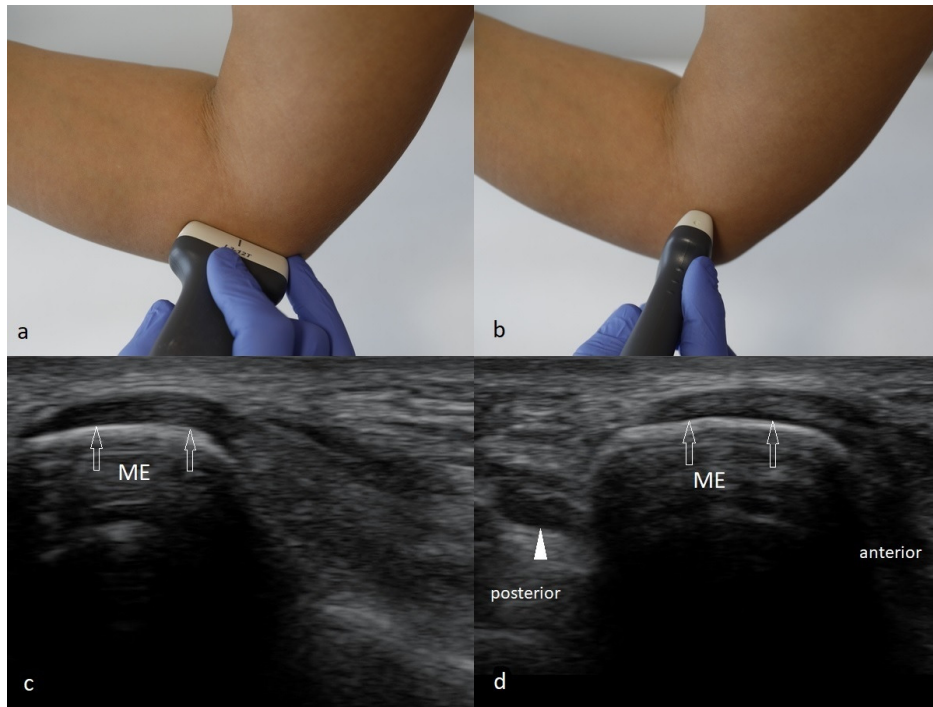


Figure 4. Position of the probe to obtain a CFT image in longitudinal (a) and transverse (b) sections and a correct ultrasound image of CFT in longitudinal (c) and transverse (d) sections; ME - medial epicondyle, open arrows - CFT, white arrow head - median nerve.

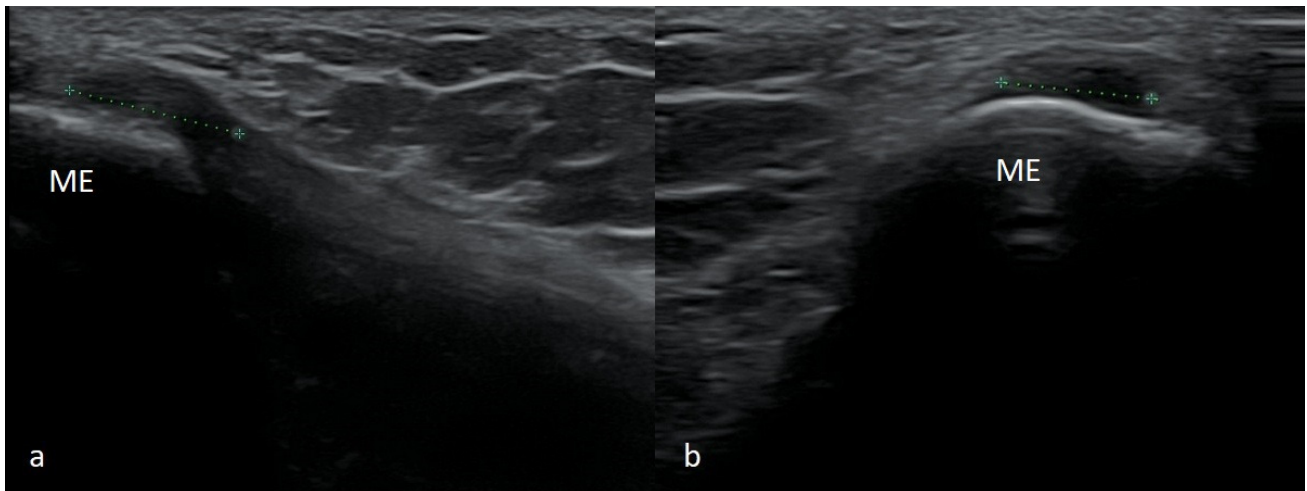


Figure 5. A case of a simple enthesopathy, visible thickening, decreased echogenicity and segmental disappearance of the typical filamentous echostructure.

Ultrasound can also be used during guided injections or tissue modulation and can help assess response to therapy.^{14,45,59} Recently, a power Doppler has been applied in epicondylitis management and has high diagnostic accuracy of this examination in tennis elbow was observed.⁶⁰ In musculoskeletal studies ultrasound elastography (USE) is increasingly being used.

It is an imaging technology sensitive to tissue stiffness so this technique may be helpful in epicondylitis diagnosis hence increased compressibility is characteristics for this disorder.^{59,61} However, usage of USE as a routine test requires further studies and standardization of the technique.

MAGNETIC RESONANCE IMAGING

Noncontrast magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) appears to be the investigation of choice for radiologic detection of ME but usually is performed if the clinical picture of disease is unclear. On T1- and T2-weighted sequences, thickening of the CFT (from intermediate to high) is indication of ME.⁶² An increased signal intensity on the T2-weighted images in the CFT area and paratendinous edema are the most characteristic findings.⁶³ Noncontrast MRI is effective also for detecting pathologic change in the tendon like MCL.²⁴

TREATMENT

The aim of ME managing is to relieve acute symptoms, rehabilitate the pathologic tendon and prevent disease recurrence what may be achieved with various non-surgical and surgical treatment options.²⁴ Due to similar pathophysiology of ME and LE, treatment options for both entities are analogous. However, higher prevalence of LE caused that great majority of studies assessing efficacy of different therapies regarded to this disease.

NON-OPERATIVE TREATMENT

ACTIVITY MODIFICATION

The basic of any therapy is modification of activities and avoiding affected arm movements that cause pain. Ice pack application on affected area may also be helpful.

ORTHOSES/ BRACES

Relief may be obtained with wearing a brace that reduce tendon and muscle strain on affecting arm. The typical brace is inelastic, non-articular proximal forearm strap and should be worn for about 6 weeks.⁶⁴ The use of counterforce brace was shown to reduce pain and improve elbow function. However, as an orthosis compresses the extensors slightly distal to the affected area, it may shorten the muscles by excluding the affected segment.^{65,66}

PHYSICAL THERAPY

Exercises and massages are focused on stretching and vascularization of the CFT. They should result in strengthening and restoration of the muscle-tendon.^{7,34} However, the type of exercises matters - eccentric exercise may be helpful,⁶⁷ but isometric exercises seems to be no more effective than ice therapy.⁶⁸ It is difficult to definitely evaluate effectiveness of physiotherapy in ME treatment as studies have different design and inconclusive results.⁶⁹ To sum them up it is noteworthy to cite outcomes of recent systematic reviews and meta-analysis that showed statistical and clinical outcomes improvement after physical therapy in patients with epicondylitis⁷⁰ and superiority of manual therapy and strength training over shock waves, orthoses or high intensity laser.⁷¹

NONSTEROIDAL ANTI-INFLAMMATORY DRUGS

Although ME is not an inflammatory disorder, the usage of nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) may be helpful. It was estimated that such conservative treatment alleviate symptoms in 88-96% of cases of ME and are particularly effective in reducing the synovitis associated with flexor-pronator tendon degeneration.⁷² These pharmaceuticals may be applied orally or topically and both approaches showed short-term efficacy.⁷³ Recently, it has been demonstrated that NSAIDs combined with kinesio taping in patients with LE effectively decrease pain and improve ultrasonographic parameters like thickness of com-

mon extensor tendon and radial nerve cross sectional area.⁷⁴

LOCAL INJECTIONS

CORTICOSTEROIDS

Injections of corticosteroids are the most common applied form of therapy for epicondylitis.⁷⁵ They possess an anti-inflammatory properties and when injected into the peritendinous and synovial tissues may reduce pain and improve arm function, although their mechanism of action remains uncertain.^{44,76,77} A lot of studies demonstrated that corticosteroid injections provide significant pain relief but this effect is restricted only to short period of time (< 8 weeks).⁷⁸⁻⁸¹ Long term effects of this therapy were rather unsatisfactory and even worse than in case of saline injections or no treatment.^{79,82,83} Besides, repeated corticosteroids injections may lead to the iatrogenic tendon rupture and muscle atrophy.⁸⁴

PLATELET-RICH PLASMA

The second commonly injected substance is platelet-rich plasma (PRP). This is an autologous preparation of whole blood which was filtered to obtain a fraction of plasma containing high level of platelets. They contain different growth and differentiation factors that play a role in tissue healing.⁸⁵ Treatment with PRP relief pain, improves recovery of structure and function in epicondylitis patients, but also has a positive effect on quality of life during recovery process.^{86,87} It was suggested that higher platelet counts with leukocytes and a slightly acidic pH injection is optimal for triggering healing of tendons.⁸⁸ Effects of PRP therapy do not appear immediately but they seem to be long-lasting. Result of studies concerning PRP efficacy are divergent - from suggestion that PRP may be alternative for surgery⁷⁰ to conclusion that PRP is not superior than saline injection.⁸⁹ Although, it seems that most of studies indicate on long-term improvement with PRP injections in patients with epicondylitis.⁹⁰⁻⁹²

CORTICOSTEROIDS VS. PRP

Trying to compare efficacy of corticosteroid and PRP injections, it should be emphasized that corticosteroids provide rapid therapeutic effect but it is observed in short follow-up. In turn, improvement after PRP administration occur later but lasts for a longer period of time.^{79,82,90-93} Systematic review revealed that corticosteroid injections in comparison with PRP led to more significant decrease in Doppler activity and tendon thickness but they increase the number of patients with cortical erosion.⁸²

TECHNIQUE OF INJECTIONS

Regardless of the substance being injected, the technique of injection is crucial for therapy effectiveness. Before corticosteroids injection, the point of maximal tenderness should be palpated over the medial epicondyle and marked. Then, the needle should be inserted directly down to the level of bone and pulled back 1 to 2 mm before solution in-

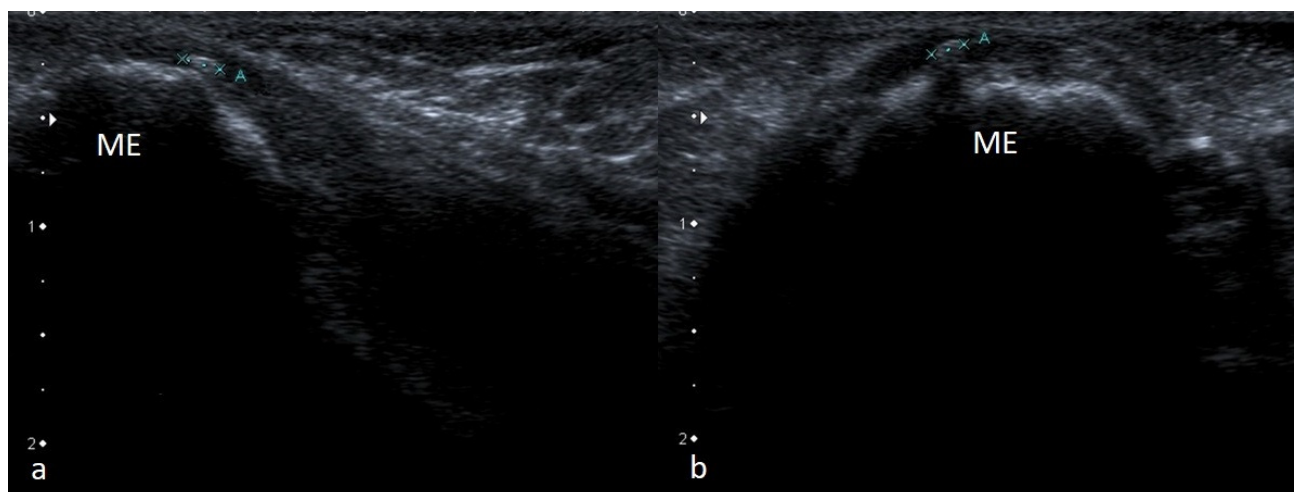


Figure 6. A case of advanced enthesopathy with formation of calcifications due to damage to the CFT structure, a. longitudinal image view, b. transverse image view. ME – medial epicondyle.

jection. Usually a mixture of local anesthetic and steroid is injected. The PRP, collagen or HA also should be injected into the most affected area, however they are administered without anesthetic addition. In all cases an antiseptic technique should be applied and after injection, the wrist extensors or flexors should be stressed to injected solution may circulate properly.⁹⁴

The use of ultrasound to guide the injections is thought to improve the outcome of the autologous blood injections,⁹⁵ however some studies indicate that ultrasound-guided injection has no better outcomes than a palpation-guided injection of corticosteroids.^{96,97} Image of ultrasound-guided injection is presented on [Figure 6](#).

Different routes of drug delivery using in-plane and out-of-plane techniques are possible, the in-plane procedure seems to be more beneficial. In-plane coronal approach involves placing the probe longitudinally with the proximal end of the transducer over the medial epicondyle. When medial epicondyle and the proximal attachments of the CFT are identified they should be marked as well as obvious vessels. The needle should be inserted parallel to the transducer from distal to proximal or conversely but not too posterior to avoid the ulnar nerve damage. When corticosteroids are injected, attention should be paid to avoid superficial administration as it can cause subcutaneous atrophy or depigmentation.⁹⁸

DRY NEEDLING (DN)

Dry needling (DN) also may be used in treatment of epicondylitis as insertion of a needle alone is supposed to exert therapeutic effects. The explanation of this effect might be increase in the blood supply and thus oxygenation in affected area that lead to a healing response.⁷⁵ This procedure showed superiority in pain and function improvement over NSAIDs and bracing.⁹⁹ It was demonstrated that even one session of DN may improve pain and disability.¹⁰⁰ Dry needling is not associated with major complications and may be even more effective than corticosteroids injections, especially in longer follow-up.⁹⁹⁻¹⁰¹

EXTRACORPOREAL SHOCK-WAVE THERAPY (ESWT)

The extracorporeal shock wave therapy (ESWT) is one of the most common electrotherapeutic modalities recommended for tendinopathy. This technique is based on acoustic waves that are focused on targeted body site. Shock waves are supposed to cause a controlled microtrauma that triggers the body's natural healing process involving improvement of tissue regeneration, decrease in calcification and inhibition of pain receptors, although exact mechanism of its action is not described in details. This method should not be applied for acute epicondylitis but is recommended for patients when symptoms lasting for more than six months or when other treatment options are ineffective.^{15,102,103} Results of recent systematic review and meta-analysis indicate that ESWT can effectively relieve the pain and functional impairment in LE, but authors points that quantity and quality of data were poor.¹⁰³ However, the second recent meta-analysis demonstrated that although ESWT does not reduce overall pain, it made more people obtain 50% pain reduction.¹⁰⁴

OPERATIVE TREATMENT

Operative interventions are typically reserved for patients in whom non-surgical treatment fails, that is if symptoms persist despite at least 3-6 months of conservative treatment.^{24,105,106} Higher probability of subsequent surgical treatment seems to concern patients obese (BMI > 30) and over 65 years as they are at risk of therapeutic injection failure.¹⁰⁷

There are a few options of surgical techniques used in ME treatment, however the most common are open techniques which consists of: skin incision, excision of the pathologic tendon fragment, enhancement of local vascularity to promote a healing, reattachment of elevated tendon origin back to the epicondyle, repair of the resultant defect, and – if needed – management of concurrent ulnar nerve or ULC pathology.⁸

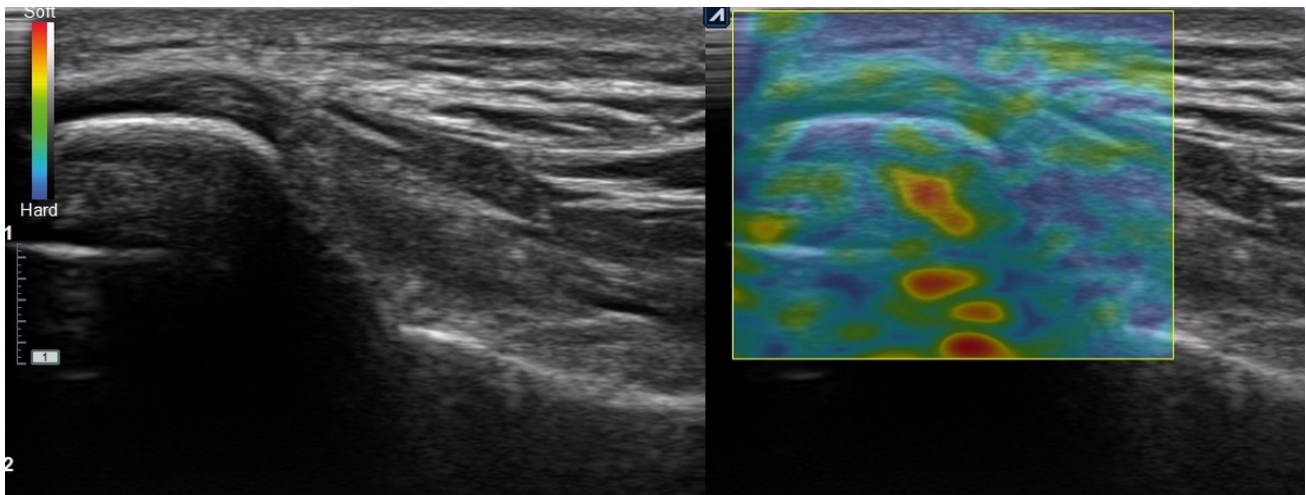


Figure 7. CFT. On the left a 2d, B-mode view, on the right an elastographic image.

One of technique modality involves open debridement of the common tendon, with or without microfracture of the medial epicondyle, and either side-to-side tendon repair or reattachment of the common tendon to the medial epicondyle.^{44,108} More recent techniques concern repair of the CFT to the medial epicondyle with use suture or anchors or transosseous sutures.^{108,109} Another ones involve making a mini-open muscle resection of the common flexor mass and microfracture of the medial epicondyle without reattachment of the tendon. Then closure of the fascia is performed to create an enclosed hematoma to promote healing.^{108,109}

Generally, open techniques allow the surgeon to perform additional procedures when needed but - above all - they also allow to identify and protect the ulnar nerve. In turn, risk of iatrogenic injury of MCL and the ulnar nerve due to close location the medial epicondyle make arthroscopic approach usually not recommended in ME surgical management.^{40,43,105,109}

Postoperatively, the arm should be immobilized via a splint or sling for up to two weeks and then return to activities of daily living is advised. Strengthening exercises may begin minimum six months after surgery, and eventual return to full activity or sport may take place after three -six months.²⁴

A new treatment approach proposed as an alternative treatment to surgical intervention for epicondylitis is an ultrasound-guided percutaneous needle tenotomy (PCNT) for treating tendinopathy called the TENEX. This procedure involves minimally invasive, ultrasound-guided removal of scar tissue in the region of the tendon pain and showed efficacy in treatment both lateral and medial epicondylitis even with long-term follow-up for 3 years.^{110,111}

CONCLUSIONS

Although ME, commonly known as “golfer’s elbow” is not a frequent disease, it is worth to know its specificity, because it is not quite as it may seem. ME is not reserved for golf players only and for other athletes hence it is found much more often in patients working in specific occupational set-

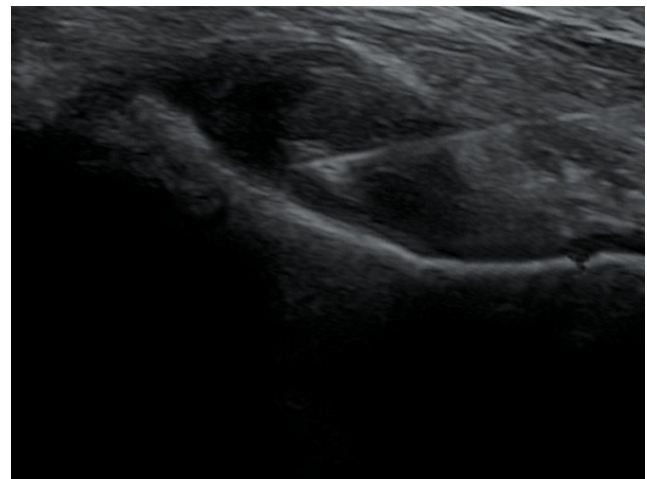


Figure 8. Injection of medial epicondylitis.

tings. The work-related risk factors include extreme elbow flexion or extension, pronation or supination, and also lifting of objects with high forces and/or combination of mentioned.

Also belief that mainly repetitive work cause ME was negated. It turned out that forceful work may have even greater impact on ME development than repetitive motions which are thought to be associated with the disease only when combined with forceful activities or awkward posture.

Regarding to the nature of the ME, it might be supposed that the underlying cause of the “epicondylitis” the inflammatory process. However, it was proved by the results of histological research that ME involves degenerative changes at the CFT.

In treatment of ME different approaches - especially nonoperative - may be applied, however their effectiveness may be not as high as it is expected hence this issue should be verified in further studies.

Summing up, it can be concluded that although ME seems to be rare and inconspicuous disease, it may cause difficulties in diagnostic-therapeutic process due to its specific nature. For this reason, it would be reasonable to de-

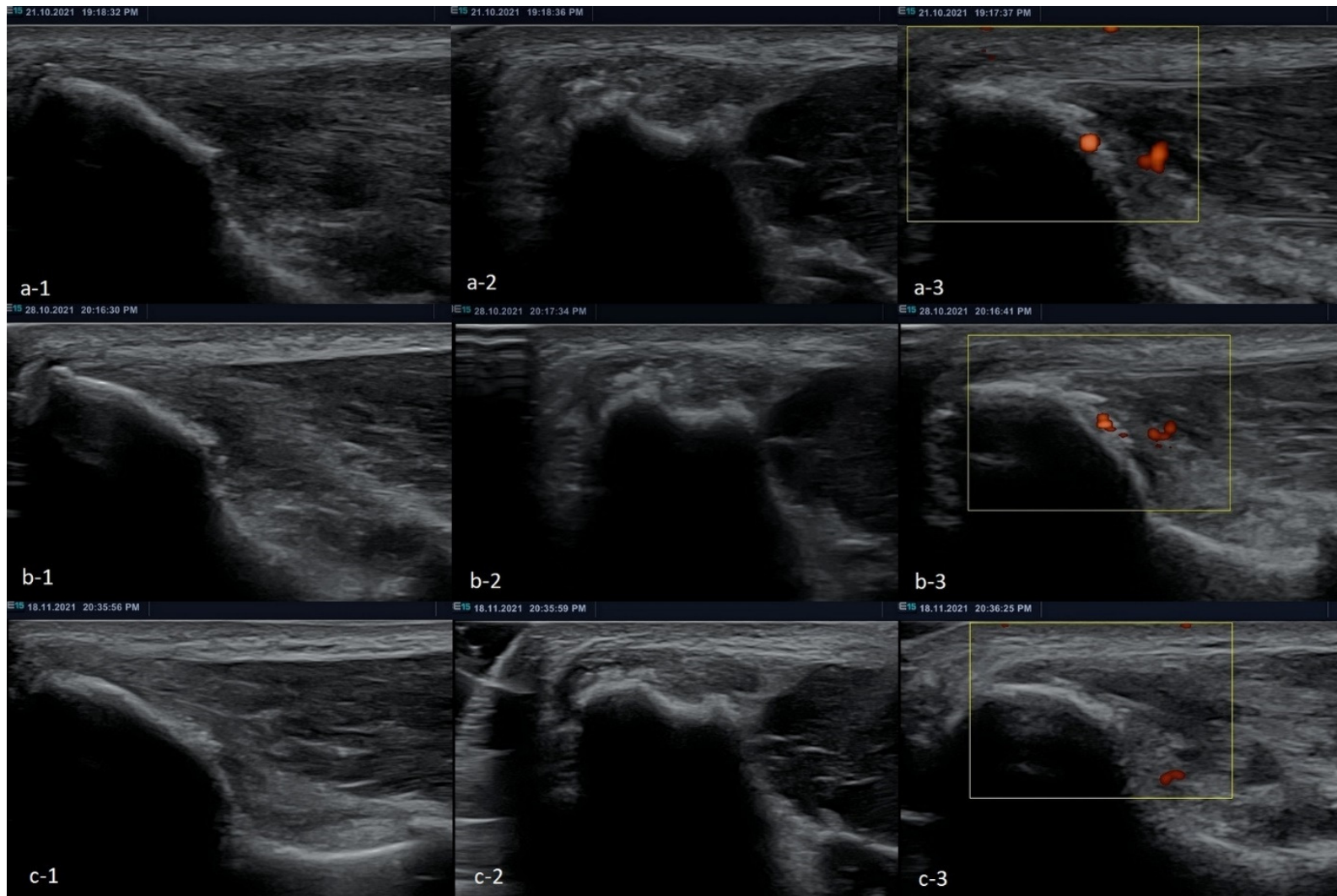


Figure 9. A case of CFT enthesopathy treated with a single PRP injection, in each section 1-3, on image 1 -longitudinal, 2- transvers, 3 – power Doppler scans are posted, series a – just before injection – 1,2 - the CFT attachment has reduced echogenicity, it is slightly thickened (well seen on a-2 scan), a pour fibrous echostructure is visible, in the power Doppler mode, a single vessels are visible, which can be considered normal; b – a week after injection, 1,2 a reduction in the size of the hypoechoic area is seen, and enhanced second-degree vascularization is observed in the power Doppler mode; c - 4 weeks after injection, 1,2 - reduction of hypoechoic area is visible, the fibrillary echostructure of the attachment begins to renew, the features of increased vascularization disappeared in the power Doppler mode.

velop clear guidelines for the diagnosis and treatment of “golfer’s elbow” based on current knowledge and newest research results.

data from the research would be submitted for publication, and gave their consent.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

None

ETHICAL STATEMENT

The article does not contain a description of tests and experiments on animals. The patients were informed that

REFERENCES

1. Morrey BF. *The Elbow and Its Disorders*. 3rd ed. W.B. Saunders; 2000.
2. Matthews J, Boyle K. Tennis and golfer's elbow: Epicondylitis. In: Eltorai AEM, Eberson CP, Daniels AH, eds. *Orthopedic Surgery Clerkship*. Springer International Publishing; 2017:87-90. [doi:10.1007/978-3-319-52567-9_19](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-52567-9_19)
3. Morris H. The rider's sprain. *The Lancet*. 1882;120(3074):133-134. [doi:10.1016/s0140-6736\(02\)26282-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0140-6736(02)26282-0)
4. *Aaas Comprehensive Orthopaedic Review*. 2nd ed. American Academy of Orthopaedic Surgeons; 2014.
5. Descatha A, Dale AM, Jaegers L, Herquelot E, Evanoff B. Self-reported physical exposure association with medial and lateral epicondylitis incidence in a large longitudinal study: Table 1. *Occup Environ Med*. 2013;70(9):670-673. [doi:10.1136/oemed-2012-101341](https://doi.org/10.1136/oemed-2012-101341)
6. Gołąb BK, Traczyk WZ, Karasek M, Traczyk W. *Anatomia i fizjologia człowieka: podręcznik dla studentów wydziałów farmacji, zdrowia publicznego, analityki medycznej, pielęgniarstwa, biologii i nauki o ziemi, studiów kosmetycznych i innych*. Ośrodek Doradztwa i Szkolenia "TUR," Łódź; Jaktorów; 1997.
7. Brady C, Dutta A. Medial Epicondylitis and Medial Elbow Pain Syndrome: Current Treatment Strategies. *J Musculoskelet Disord Treat*. 2016;2(2). [doi:10.23937/2572-3243.1510014](https://doi.org/10.23937/2572-3243.1510014)
8. Ciccotti MC, Schwartz MA, Ciccotti MG. Diagnosis and treatment of medial epicondylitis of the elbow. *Clin Sports Med*. 2004;23(4):693-705. [doi:10.1016/j.cs.m.2004.04.011](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cs.m.2004.04.011)
9. Gabel GT, Morrey BF. Medial Epicondylitis. In: *Morrey's The Elbow and Its Disorders*. Elsevier; 2009:643-649. [doi:10.1016/b978-1-4160-2902-1.50050-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/b978-1-4160-2902-1.50050-4)
10. Sampath SC, Sampath SC, Bredella MA. Magnetic Resonance Imaging of the Elbow: A Structured Approach. *Sports Health Multidiscip Approach*. 2012;5(1):34-49. [doi:10.1177/1941738112467941](https://doi.org/10.1177/1941738112467941)
11. Garden RS. TENNIS ELBOW. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 1961;43-B(1):100-106. [doi:10.1302/0301-620x.43b1.100](https://doi.org/10.1302/0301-620x.43b1.100)
12. Nirschl RP, Pettrone FA. Tennis elbow. The surgical treatment of lateral epicondylitis. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 1979;61(6):832-839. [doi:10.2106/00004623-197961060-00005](https://doi.org/10.2106/00004623-197961060-00005)
13. Regan W, Wold LE, Coonrad R, Morrey BF. Microscopic histopathology of chronic refractory lateral epicondylitis. *Am J Sports Med*. 1992;20(6):746-749. [doi:10.1177/036354659202000618](https://doi.org/10.1177/036354659202000618)
14. Erdem Y, Neyisci C. Lateral and Medial Epicondylitis: Definition, Diagnosis, Screening and Treatment Algorithms, Work-related Musculoskeletal Disorders. *IntechOpen*. Published online October 2, 2019. [doi:10.5772/intechopen.81915](https://doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.81915)
15. Kiel J, Kaiser K. Golfers Elbow. In: *StatPearls*. StatPearls Publishing; 2021.
16. Otoshi K, Kikuchi S ichi, Shishido H, Konno S ichi. The proximal origins of the flexor-pronator muscles and their role in the dynamic stabilization of the elbow joint: an anatomical study. *Surg Radiol Anat*. 2013;36(3):289-294. [doi:10.1007/s00276-013-1168-3](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00276-013-1168-3)
17. Radunovic G, Vlad V, Micu MC, et al. Ultrasound assessment of the elbow. *Med Ultrason*. 2012;14:141-146.
18. Gabel GT, Morrey BF. Operative treatment of medical epicondylitis. Influence of concomitant ulnar neuropathy at the elbow. *J Bone Jt Surg*. 1995;77(7):1065-1069. [doi:10.2106/00004623-199507000-00013](https://doi.org/10.2106/00004623-199507000-00013)
19. Descatha A, Leclerc A, Chastang JF, Roquelaure Y. Medial Epicondylitis in Occupational Settings: Prevalence, Incidence and Associated Risk Factors. *J Occup Environ Med*. 2003;45(9):993-1001. [doi:10.1097/01.jom.0000085888.37273.d9](https://doi.org/10.1097/01.jom.0000085888.37273.d9)
20. Shiri R, Viikari-Juntura E. Lateral and medial epicondylitis: Role of occupational factors. *Best Pract Res Clin Rheumatol*. 2011;25(1):43-57. [doi:10.1016/j.bcrh.2011.01.013](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bcrh.2011.01.013)
21. Shiri R, Viikari-Juntura E, Varonen H, Heliovaara M. Prevalence and Determinants of Lateral and Medial Epicondylitis: A Population Study. *Am J Epidemiol*. 2006;164(11):1065-1074. [doi:10.1093/aje/kwj325](https://doi.org/10.1093/aje/kwj325)

22. Walker-Bone K, Palmer KT, Reading I, Coggon D, Cooper C. Occupation and epicondylitis: a population-based study. *Rheumatology*. 2012;51(2):305-310. [doi:10.1093/rheumatology/ker228](https://doi.org/10.1093/rheumatology/ker228)
23. Wolf JM, Mountcastle S, Burks R, Sturdivant RX, Owens BD. Epidemiology of Lateral and Medial Epicondylitis in a Military Population. *Mil Med*. 2010;175(5):336-339. [doi:10.7205/milmed-d-09-00086](https://doi.org/10.7205/milmed-d-09-00086)
24. Amin NH, Kumar NS, Schickendantz MS. Medial Epicondylitis: Evaluation and Management. *J Am Acad Orthop Surg*. 2015;23(6):348-355. [doi:10.5435/jaas-d-14-00145](https://doi.org/10.5435/jaas-d-14-00145)
25. Baumgard SH, Schwartz DR. Percutaneous release of the epicondylar muscles for humeral epicondylitis. *Am J Sports Med*. 1982;10(4):233-236. [doi:10.1177/036354658201000408](https://doi.org/10.1177/036354658201000408)
26. Plancher KD, Halbrecht J, Lourie GM. Medial and lateral epicondylitis in the athlete. *Clin Sports Med*. 1996;15(2):283-305. [doi:10.1016/s0278-5919\(20\)30133-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0278-5919(20)30133-2)
27. Wiggins AJ, Cancienne JM, Camp CL, et al. Disease Burden of Medial Epicondylitis in the USA Is Increasing: An Analysis of 19,856 Patients From 2007 to 2014. *HSS J*. 2018;14(3):233-237. [doi:10.1007/s11420-018-9617-5](https://doi.org/10.1007/s11420-018-9617-5)
28. Sluiter JK, Rest KM, HW Frings-Dresen MH. Criteria document for evaluating the work-relatedness of upper-extremity musculoskeletal disorders. *Scand J Work Environ Health*. 2001;27:1-102. [doi:10.5271/sjweh.637](https://doi.org/10.5271/sjweh.637)
29. Jobe FW, Ciccotti MG. Lateral and Medial Epicondylitis of the Elbow. *J Am Acad Orthop Surg*. 1994;2(1):1-8. [doi:10.5435/00124635-199401000-0001](https://doi.org/10.5435/00124635-199401000-0001)
30. van Rijn RM, Huisstede BMA, Koes BW, Burdorf A. Associations between work-related factors and specific disorders at the elbow: a systematic literature review. *Rheumatology*. 2008;48(5):528-536. [doi:10.1093/rheumatology/kep013](https://doi.org/10.1093/rheumatology/kep013)
31. Bernard M, Regan W. Elbow and forearm. In: *DeLee, Drez & Miller's Orthopaedic Sports Medicine*. 5th ed. Publisher unknown; 2018.
32. Bernard B, ed. *Musculoskeletal Disorders and Workplace Factors. A Critical Review of Epidemiologic Evidence for Work-Related Musculoskeletal Disorders of the Neck, Upper Extremity, and Low Back*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health; 1997. [doi:10.26616/nioshpub97141](https://doi.org/10.26616/nioshpub97141)
33. Copas D, Talbot JC. Clinical assessment of the elbow. *Orthop Trauma*. 2016;30(4):291-300. [doi:10.1016/j.mporth.2016.04.009](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mporth.2016.04.009)
34. Golfer's elbow. Mayo Clin. <https://www.mayoclinic.org/diseases-conditions/golfers-elbow/symptoms-causes/syc-20372868>
35. Sluiter JK, Rest KM, HW Frings-Dresen MH. Criteria document for evaluating the work-relatedness of upper-extremity musculoskeletal disorders. *Scand J Work Environ Health*. 2001;27:1-102. [doi:10.5271/sjweh.637](https://doi.org/10.5271/sjweh.637)
36. Ciccotti MG. Epicondylitis in the athlete. *Instr Course Lect*. 1999;48:375-381.
37. Zahn KV, Byerly DW. Medial Epicondyle Injection. In: *StatPearls*. StatPearls Publishing; 2021.
38. Matthews J, Boyle K. Tennis and Golfer's Elbow: Epicondylitis. In: Eltorai AEM, Ebersson CP, Daniels AH, eds. *Orthopedic Surgery Clerkship*. Springer International Publishing; 2017:87-90. [doi:10.1007/978-3-319-52567-9_19](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-52567-9_19)
39. Terranova LM. Epicondylitis. In: Kahn SB, Xu RY, eds. *Musculoskeletal Sports and Spine Disorders: A Comprehensive Guide*. Springer International Publishing; 2017:93-95. [doi:10.1007/978-3-319-50512-1_19](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-50512-1_19)
40. Barco R, Antuña SA. Medial elbow pain. *EFORT Open Rev*. 2017;2(8):362-371. [doi:10.1302/2058-5241.2.160006](https://doi.org/10.1302/2058-5241.2.160006)
41. Kane SF, Lynch JH, Taylor JC. *Evaluation of Elbow Pain in Adults*. 2014;89:9.
42. van der Molen HF, Visser S, Alfonso JH, et al. Diagnostic criteria for musculoskeletal disorders for use in occupational healthcare or research: a scoping review of consensus- and synthesised-based case definitions. *BMC Musculoskelet Disord*. 2021;22(1):169. [doi:10.1186/s12891-021-04031-z](https://doi.org/10.1186/s12891-021-04031-z)
43. Zwerus EL, Somford MP, Maissan F, Heisen J, Eygendaal D, van den Bekerom MP. Physical examination of the elbow, what is the evidence? A systematic literature review. *Br J Sports Med*. 2017;52(19):1253-1260. [doi:10.1136/bjsports-2016-096712](https://doi.org/10.1136/bjsports-2016-096712)

44. Ciccotti MG, Ramani MN. Medial Epicondylitis. *Tech Hand Up Extrem Surg.* 2003;7(4):190-196. [doi:10.1097/00130911-200312000-00010](https://doi.org/10.1097/00130911-200312000-00010)
45. Kiel J, Kaiser K. Golfers Elbow. In: *StatPearls*. StatPearls Publishing; 2021.
46. Pienimäkil T, Siiral P, Vanharantal H. Widespread pain in chronic epicondylitis. *Eur J Pain Lond Engl.* 2011;15(9):921-927. [doi:10.1016/j.ejpain.2011.04.002](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejpain.2011.04.002)
47. Polkinghorn BS. A novel method for assessing elbow pain resulting from epicondylitis. *J Chiropr Med.* 2002;1(3):117-121. [doi:10.1016/s0899-3467\(07\)60015-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0899-3467(07)60015-9)
48. Taylor SA, Hannafin JA. Evaluation and Management of Elbow Tendinopathy. *Sports Health.* 2012;4(5):384-393. [doi:10.1177/1941738112454651](https://doi.org/10.1177/1941738112454651)
49. Cutts S. Cubital tunnel syndrome. *Postgrad Med J.* 2007;83(975):28-31. [doi:10.1136/pgmj.2006.047456](https://doi.org/10.1136/pgmj.2006.047456)
50. Freehill MT, Safran MR. Diagnosis and Management of Ulnar Collateral Ligament Injuries in Throwers. *Curr Sports Med Rep.* 2011;10(5):271-278. [doi:10.1249/j.sr.0b013e31822d4000](https://doi.org/10.1249/j.sr.0b013e31822d4000)
51. Zaremski JL, Vincent KR, Vincent HK. Elbow Ulnar Collateral Ligament: Injury, Treatment Options, and Recovery in Overhead Throwing Athletes. *Curr Sports Med Rep.* 2019;18(9):338-345. [doi:10.1249/j.sr.0000000000000629](https://doi.org/10.1249/j.sr.0000000000000629)
52. Lee AT, Lee-Robinson AL. The Prevalence of Medial Epicondylitis Among Patients With C6 and C7 Radiculopathy. *Sports Health Multidiscip Approach.* 2010;2(4):334-336. [doi:10.1177/1941738109357304](https://doi.org/10.1177/1941738109357304)
53. Polston DW. Cervical Radiculopathy. *Neurol Clin.* 2007;25(2):373-385. [doi:10.1016/j.ncl.2007.01.012](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ncl.2007.01.012)
54. Vaishya R, Kapoor C, Agarwal AK, Vijay V. A Rare Presentation of Ganglion Cyst of the Elbow. *Cureus.* Published online July 1, 2016. [doi:10.7759/cureus.665](https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.665)
55. Chim H, Yam AKT, Teoh LC. ELBOW GANGLION ARISING FROM MEDIAL EPICONDYLE PSEUDARTHROSIS. *Hand Surg.* 2007;12(3):155-158. [doi:10.1142/s0218810407003675](https://doi.org/10.1142/s0218810407003675)
56. Kuboi T, Tajika T, Endo F, Hatori Y, Saida R, Chikuda H. Cubital tunnel syndrome with small occult ganglion: A case report of bike rider. *SAGE Open Med Case Rep.* 2020;8:2050313X2097285. [doi:10.1177/2050313X20972850](https://doi.org/10.1177/2050313X20972850)
57. Lee SW, Kim SG, Oh-Park M. Ganglion Cyst of Radiocapitellar Joint Mimicking Lateral Epicondylitis: Role of Ultrasonography. *Am J Phys Med Rehabil.* 2013;92(5):459-460. [doi:10.1097/phm.0b013e31824ad635](https://doi.org/10.1097/phm.0b013e31824ad635)
58. Park GY, Lee SM, Lee MY. Diagnostic Value of Ultrasonography for Clinical Medial Epicondylitis. *Arch Phys Med Rehabil.* 2008;89(4):738-742. [doi:10.1016/j.apmr.2007.09.048](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apmr.2007.09.048)
59. Khoury V, Cardinal É. “Tenomalacia”: a new sonographic sign of tendinopathy? *Eur Radiol.* 2009;19(1):144-146. [doi:10.1007/s00330-008-1112-9](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00330-008-1112-9)
60. du Toit C, Stieler M, Saunders R, Bisset L, Vicenzino B. Diagnostic accuracy of power Doppler ultrasound in patients with chronic tennis elbow. *Br J Sports Med.* 2008;42(11):872. [doi:10.1136/bjsm.2007.043901](https://doi.org/10.1136/bjsm.2007.043901)
61. Sigrist RMS, Liao J, Kaffas AE, Chammas MC, Willmann JK. Ultrasound Elastography: Review of Techniques and Clinical Applications. *Theranostics.* 2017;7(5):1303-1329. [doi:10.7150/thno.18650](https://doi.org/10.7150/thno.18650)
62. Kijowski R, De Smet AA. Magnetic resonance imaging findings in patients with medial epicondylitis. *Skeletal Radiol.* 2005;34(4):196-202. [doi:10.1007/s00256-005-0896-9](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00256-005-0896-9)
63. Donaldson O, Vannet N, Gosens T, Kulkarni R. Tendinopathies Around the Elbow Part 2: Medial Elbow, Distal Biceps and Triceps Tendinopathies. *Shoulder & Elbow.* 2014;6(1):47-56. [doi:10.1111/sae.12022](https://doi.org/10.1111/sae.12022)
64. Struijs PA, Smidt N, Arola H, van Dijk CN, Buchbinder R, Assendelft WJ. Orthotic devices for the treatment of tennis elbow. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2002;2010(1). [doi:10.1002/14651858.cd001821](https://doi.org/10.1002/14651858.cd001821)
65. Krosiak M, Pirapakaran K, Murrell GAC. Counterforce bracing of lateral epicondylitis: a prospective, randomized, double-blinded, placebo-controlled clinical trial. *J Shoulder Elbow Surg.* 2019;28(2):288-295. [doi:10.1016/j.jse.2018.10.002](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jse.2018.10.002)
66. Ma KL, Wang HQ. Management of Lateral Epicondylitis: A Narrative Literature Review. *Pain Research and Management.* 2020;2020:1-9. [doi:10.1155/2020/6965381](https://doi.org/10.1155/2020/6965381)
67. Cullinane FL, Boocock MG, Trevelyan FC. Is eccentric exercise an effective treatment for lateral epicondylitis? A systematic review. *Clin Rehabil.* 2013;28(1):3-19. [doi:10.1177/0269215513491974](https://doi.org/10.1177/0269215513491974)

68. Clifford C, Challoumas D, Paul L, Syme G, Millar NL. Effectiveness of isometric exercise in the management of tendinopathy: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomised trials. *BMJ Open Sport Exerc Med*. 2020;6(1):e000760. doi:10.1136/bmjsem-2020-000760
69. Bisset L. A systematic review and meta-analysis of clinical trials on physical interventions for lateral epicondylalgia. *Br J Sports Med*. 2005;39(7):411-422. doi:10.1136/bjsm.2004.016170
70. Kim YJ, Wood SM, Yoon AP, Howard JC, Yang LY, Chung KC. Efficacy of Nonoperative Treatments for Lateral Epicondylitis: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2020;147(1):112-125. doi:10.1097/prs.00000000000007440
71. Landesa-Martínez L, Leirós-Rodríguez R. Physiotherapy treatment of lateral epicondylitis: A systematic review. *J Back Musculoskelet Rehabil*. 2021;35(3):463-477. doi:10.3233/bmr-210053
72. Gabel GT, Morrey BF. Operative treatment of medical epicondylitis. Influence of concomitant ulnar neuropathy at the elbow. *J Bone Jt Surg*. 1995;77(7):1065-1069. doi:10.2106/00004623-199507000-00013
73. Ahmad Z, Siddiqui N, Malik SS, Abdus-Samee M, Tytherleigh-Strong G, Rushton N. Lateral epicondylitis: A review of pathology and management. *Bone Jt J*. 2013;95-B(9):1158-1164. doi:10.1302/0301-620x.95b9.29285
74. Mansiz-Kaplan B, Pervane-Vural S, Celik OF, Genc H. Comparison of the effects of using non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs with or without kinesio taping on the radial nerve in lateral epicondylitis: A randomized-single blind study. *EXPLORE*. 2021;17(4):327-333. doi:10.1016/j.explore.2020.07.008
75. Lenoir H, Mares O, Carlier Y. Management of lateral epicondylitis. *Orthop Traumatol Surg Res, Proceedings of the French Arthroscopic Society*. 2019;105(8):S241-S246. doi:10.1016/j.otsr.2019.09.004
76. Lian J, Mohamadi A, Chan JJ, et al. Comparative Efficacy and Safety of Nonsurgical Treatment Options for Enthesopathy of the Extensor Carpi Radialis Brevis: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Randomized Placebo-Controlled Trials. *Am J Sports Med*. 2019;47(12):3019-3029. doi:10.1177/0363546518801914
77. The International Centre for Allied Health Evidence. *Systematic Review of Literature: The Effectiveness of Injection of Steroid with or without Local Anaesthetic to the Elbow (Medial or Lateral Epicondyle) as a Form of Interventional Pain Management*. The Accident Compensation Corporation; 2016.
78. Lebiedziński R, Synder M, Buchcic P, Polguy M, Grzegorzewski A, Sibiński M. A randomized study of autologous conditioned plasma and steroid injections in the treatment of lateral epicondylitis. *Int Orthop*. 2015;39(11):2199-2203. doi:10.1007/s00264-015-2861-0
79. Mi B, Liu G, Zhou W, et al. Platelet rich plasma versus steroid on lateral epicondylitis: meta-analysis of randomized clinical trials. *Phys Sportsmed*. Published online February 21, 2017. doi:10.1080/00913847.2017.1297670
80. Rahman M, Salek A, Ullah M. Comparative Efficacy of Local Steroid and Therapeutic Ultrasound for Quicker Functional Improvement in Tennis Elbow. *Mymensingh Med J MMJ*. 2017;26.
81. Yi R, Bratchenko WW, Tan V. Deep Friction Massage Versus Steroid Injection in the Treatment of Lateral Epicondylitis. *HAND*. 2018;13(1):56-59. doi:10.1177/1558944717692088
82. Ben-Nafa W, Munro W. The effect of corticosteroid versus platelet-rich plasma injection therapies for the management of lateral epicondylitis: A systematic review. *SICOT-J*. 2018;4:11. doi:10.1051/sicotj/2017062
83. Olaussen M, Holmedal Ø, Mdala I, Brage S, Lindbæk M. Corticosteroid or placebo injection combined with deep transverse friction massage, Mills manipulation, stretching and eccentric exercise for acute lateral epicondylitis: a randomised, controlled trial. *BMC Musculoskelet Disord*. 2015;16(1):122. doi:10.1186/s12891-015-0582-6
84. Coombes BK, Bisset L, Brooks P, Khan A, Vicenzino B. Effect of Corticosteroid Injection, Physiotherapy, or Both on Clinical Outcomes in Patients With Unilateral Lateral Epicondylalgia: A Randomized Controlled Trial. *JAMA*. 2013;309(5):461. doi:10.1001/jama.2013.129
85. Sampson S, Gerhardt M, Mandelbaum B. Platelet rich plasma injection grafts for musculoskeletal injuries: a review. *Curr Rev Musculoskelet Med*. 2008;1(3-4):165-174. doi:10.1007/s12178-008-9032-5
86. Tarpada SP, Morris MT, Lian J, Rashidi S. Current advances in the treatment of medial and lateral epicondylitis. *J Orthop*. 2018;15(1):107-110. doi:10.1016/j.jor.2018.01.040

87. Mautner K, Malanga G, Colberg R. Optimization of ingredients, procedures and rehabilitation for platelet-rich plasma injections for chronic tendinopathy. *Pain Manag.* 2011;1(6):523-532. [doi:10.2217/pmt.11.56](#)
88. Malanga G, Colberg R. Optimization of ingredients, procedures and rehabilitation for platelet-rich plasma injections for chronic tendinopathy. *Pain Manag.* 2011;1(6):523-532. [doi:10.2217/pmt.11.56](#)
89. Linnanmäki L, Kanto K, Karjalainen T, Leppänen OV, Lehtinen J. Platelet-rich Plasma or Autologous Blood Do Not Reduce Pain or Improve Function in Patients with Lateral Epicondylitis: A Randomized Controlled Trial. *Clin Orthop.* 2020;478(8):1892-1900. [doi:10.1097/corr.0000000000001185](#)
90. Chen X, Jones IA, Park C, Vangsness CTJ. The Efficacy of Platelet-Rich Plasma on Tendon and Ligament Healing: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis With Bias Assessment. *Am J Sports Med.* 2018;46(8):2020-2032. [doi:10.1177/0363546517743746](#)
91. Li A, Wang H, Yu Z, et al. Platelet-rich plasma vs corticosteroids for elbow epicondylitis: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Medicine.* 2019;98(51):e18358. [doi:10.1097/md.00000000000018358](#)
92. Xu Q, Chen J, Cheng L. Comparison of platelet rich plasma and corticosteroids in the management of lateral epicondylitis: A meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Int J Surg.* 2019;67:37-46. [doi:10.1016/j.ijsu.2019.05.003](#)
93. Mishra AK, Skrepnik NV, Edwards SG, et al. Efficacy of Platelet-Rich Plasma for Chronic Tennis Elbow: A Double-Blind, Prospective, Multicenter, Randomized Controlled Trial of 230 Patients. *Am J Sports Med.* 2013;42(2):463-471. [doi:10.1177/0363546513494359](#)
94. Cardone DA, Tallia AF. Diagnostic and Therapeutic Injection of the Elbow Region. *Am Fam Physician.* 2002;66:2097.
95. Suresh SP, Ali KE, Jones H, Connell DA. Medial epicondylitis: is ultrasound guided autologous blood injection an effective treatment? *Br J Sports Med.* 2006;40(11):935-939. [doi:10.1136/bjsm.2006.029983](#)
96. Gulabi D, Uysal MA, Akça A, Colak I, Çeçen GS, Gumustas S. USG-guided injection of corticosteroid for lateral epicondylitis does not improve clinical outcomes: a prospective randomised study. *Arch Orthop Trauma Surg.* 2017;137(5):601-606. [doi:10.1007/s00402-017-2657-3](#)
97. Malahias MA, Kaseta MK, Kazas ST, Megaloikonomos PD, Mavrogenis AF, Babis GC. Image-guided versus palpation-guided injections for the treatment of chronic lateral epicondylopathy: a randomized controlled clinical trial. *Handchir Mikrochir Plast Chir Organ Deutschsprachigen Arbeitsgemeinschaft Handchir Organ Deutschsprachigen Arbeitsgemeinschaft Mikrochir Peripher Nerven Gefasse Organ V.* 2018;50(5):348-352. [doi:10.1055/a-0732-5556](#)
98. Lin E, Aligene K, Kirschner JS. Elbow. In: Spinner DA, Kirschner JS, Herrera JE, eds. *Atlas of Ultrasound Guided Musculoskeletal Injections.* Springer New York; 2013:17-28. [doi:10.1007/978-1-4614-8936-8_3](#)
99. Uygur E, Aktaş B, Yilmazoglu EG. The use of dry needling vs. corticosteroid injection to treat lateral epicondylitis: a prospective, randomized, controlled study. *J Shoulder Elbow Surg.* 2021;30(1):134-139. [doi:10.1016/j.jse.2020.08.044](#)
100. Shariat A, Noormohammadpour P, Memari AH, Ansari NN, Cleland JA, Kordi R. Acute effects of one session dry needling on a chronic golfer's elbow disability. *J Exerc Rehabil.* 2018;14(1):138-142. [doi:10.12965/jer.1836008.004](#)
101. Sousa Filho LF, Barbosa Santos MM, dos Santos GHF, da Silva Júnior WM. Corticosteroid injection or dry needling for musculoskeletal pain and disability? A systematic review and GRADE evidence synthesis. *Chiropr Man Ther.* 2021;29(1):49. [doi:10.1186/s12998-021-00408-y](#)
102. Stasinopoulos D. Can extracorporeal shock-wave therapy be used for the management of lateral elbow tendinopathy? *World J Methodol.* 2018;8(3):37-39. [doi:10.5662/wjm.v8.i3.37](#)
103. Yao G, Chen J, Duan Y, Chen X. Efficacy of Extracorporeal Shock Wave Therapy for Lateral Epicondylitis: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *BioMed Res Int.* Published online March 19, 2020:1-8. [doi:10.1155/2020/2064781](#)
104. Zheng C, Zeng D, Chen J, et al. Effectiveness of extracorporeal shock wave therapy in patients with tennis elbow: A meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Medicine.* 2020;99(30):e21189. [doi:10.1097/md.00000000000021189](#)
105. Chung KC, Lark ME. Upper Extremity Injuries in Tennis Players. *Hand Clin.* 2017;33(1):175-186. [doi:10.1016/j.hcl.2016.08.009](#)
106. Han SH, Lee JK, Kim HJ, Lee SH, Kim JW, Kim TS. The result of surgical treatment of medial epicondylitis: analysis with more than a 5-year follow-up. *J Shoulder Elbow Surg.* 2016;25(10):1704-1709. [doi:10.1016/j.jse.2016.05.010](#)

107. Degen RM, Cancienne JM, Camp CL, Altchek DW, Dines JS, Werner BC. Patient-related risk factors for requiring surgical intervention following a failed injection for the treatment of medial and lateral epicondylitis. *Phys Sportsmed*. 2017;45(4):433-437. [doi:10.1080/00913847.2017.1374811](https://doi.org/10.1080/00913847.2017.1374811)
108. Alrabaa RG, Sonnenfeld J, Trofa D, Ahmad C. Elbow Common Flexor Tendon Repair Technique. *Arthrosc Tech*. 2019;8(11):e1367-e1371. [doi:10.1016/j.eats.2019.07.016](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eats.2019.07.016)
109. Grawe BM, Fabricant PD, Chin CS, et al. Clinical Outcomes After Suture Anchor Repair of Recalcitrant Medial Epicondylitis. *Orthopedics*. 2016;39(1). [doi:10.3928/01477447-20151222-09](https://doi.org/10.3928/01477447-20151222-09)
110. Boden AL, Scott MT, Dalwadi PP, Mautner K, Mason RA, Gottschalk MB. Platelet-rich plasma versus Tenex in the treatment of medial and lateral epicondylitis. *J Shoulder Elbow Surg*. 2019;28(1):112-119. [doi:10.1016/j.jse.2018.08.032](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jse.2018.08.032)
111. Chalian M, Nacey NC, Rawat U, et al. Ultrasound-guided percutaneous needle tenotomy using Tenex system for refractory lateral epicondylitis; short and long-term effectiveness and contributing factors. *Skeletal Radiol*. 2021;50(10):2049-2057. [doi:10.1007/s00256-021-03778-9](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00256-021-03778-9)