Review

Sport injuries of the elbow

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Athletic injuries of the elbow are common especially in throwing sports such as baseball and tennis. An early diagnosis, early initiation of treatment, and appropriate referrals for surgical management enable athletes to return safely to competition as quickly as possible. Elbow injuries may involve any of the anatomical structures in the region.

The normal range of motion at the elbow joint is 140° of flexion from full extension and from 75° of pronation to 85° of supination.1 The functional range of motion for activities of daily living is from 30° to 130° of flexion and 50° of supination and pronation.2 This arc of motion allows independent function but would be very limiting for many athletic pursuits. The most appropriate range of motion varies with the type of sport. For example, a gymnast performing handstands requires at least full extension (if not hyperextension) to lock the elbows, whereas baseball pitchers may have a flexion contracture of their dominant elbow of up to 20° that does not limit their effectiveness.3

Elbow injuries in athletes can be classified into acute or chronic. Most injuries in the athlete are chronic overuse injuries. Overuse injuries are the result of repetitive overload resulting in microtears of the soft tissues. They are often myotendinous to the flexor-pronator muscle group and can lead to tendonitis or muscular injury and eventually elbow flexion contracture. Repetitive microrupture of the flexor-pronator muscle group compromises the healing process leading to muscle contracture and fatigue. More repetitive stresses to the ulnar side of the elbow affect the ulnar collateral ligament. Imperfect healing of the medial collateral ligament (MCL) results in its attenuation and elbow instability. Any further valgus stresses induce compression of the radiocapitellar joint.

Incidence

Safran4 suggests that elbow injuries are becoming more common as more people participate in throwing and racquet sports. The type of injury that is encountered depends, to some extent, on the type of athletic pursuit, but the injuries can be roughly grouped into the enthesopathies (lateral and medial epicondylitis and other rarer similar conditions), valgus stress injuries as the result of altered function of the primary constraint to valgus stress, and the MCL, posterior impingement, and nerve compression syndromes. Osteochondritis dissecans is found in younger athletes. Slocum5 classified throwing injuries to the elbow but interestingly did not mention injuries such as MCL damage, indicating that this type of injury has only fairly recently been recognised. Table 1 summarises the types of injuries found in relation to particular sports. Injuries to the elbow in throwers are quite common. King et al6 reported that 50% of all pitchers have flexion contractures and about 30% have a cubitus valgus deformity. Tullos and King7 reported that 50% of baseball pitchers have injuries of either their shoulder or elbow that prevent them from performing at some point in their careers. The same authors also suggested that two thirds of pitchers have radiographic evidence of upper limb joint damage. Conway et al8 found in a group of baseball pitchers undergoing repair for chronic medial instability of the elbow that 68% had a fixed flexion deformity. The common throwing injuries on the medial side of the elbow include MCL injury, posteromedial osteophyte formation, medial epicondylitis, and ulnar nerve injury.8 Modern techniques of training and treatment may well have reduced the problem to some extent but the overall incidence of athletic injuries to the elbow is increasing because of increased numbers of participants.

Biomechanics of elbow function

One of the major misconceptions about all upper limb joints concerns whether they are weight-bearing or not. The more correct term that should be applied to upper limb joints is that they are load-bearing and the level of the load depends on the position of the limb and joint is 140° of flexion from full extension and from 75° of pronation to 85° of supination.1 The functional range of motion for activities of daily living is from 30° to 130° of flexion and 50° of supination and pronation.2 This arc of motion allows independent function but would be very limiting for many athletic pursuits. The most appropriate range of motion varies with the type of sport. For example, a gymnast performing handstands requires at least full extension (if not hyperextension) to lock the elbows, whereas baseball pitchers may have a flexion contracture of their dominant elbow of up to 20° that does not limit their effectiveness.3

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the activity being undertaken. Certainly, the upper limb joints bear less load than the hip or knee but to say they are not load-bearing is incorrect. An and Morrey have estimated that, at 90° of flexion, a force three times body weight can be transmitted through the elbow. The stability of the elbow depends on the bony architecture, the collateral ligaments (medial and lateral), and dynamic forces from the extensile musculature that crosses the joint. The contribution made by each component depends on the position of the joint. Further, it must be remembered that the radiohumeral joint and the ulnohumeral joints both play a significant role in stress distribution. In sport injuries of the elbow, it is not only the transmission of load through the joint that is important but also the angular velocities that are achieved in order to launch a projectile, etc. Conway et al. state that, in the acceleration phase of throwing a baseball, the peak angular velocity across the elbow is 4500° per second. At this level, tissues such as the MCL may be subjected to damaging forces.

The movement of the elbow is extremely complex in all athletic activities. The phases have been studied extensively in baseball pitchers. Although the exact details differ in other overhead sports, the pitcher’s elbow movement can be used as a model of the stresses that are applied in such strenuous activity.

The act of throwing a baseball can be divided into several phases; each phase involves complex body movements with the elbow playing a central role in each phase. Werner et al. divided the throwing motion into six phases: wind up, stride, arm cocking, arm acceleration, arm deceleration, and follow through. Wind up starts when the thrower begins the movement and is completed when the front of the knee reaches its maximum height. The elbow is flexed throughout this phase. The stride phase ends when the front foot contacts the mound and during this phase the throwing arm and ball separate from the lead arm and glove. The elbow in this phase extends at first and then flexes. Minimal muscle activity and elbow kinetics are present during the wind up and stride phases. The arm cocking phase starts when the front foot contacts the mound and ends when the arm reaches maximum external rotation. Shortly after the arm cocking phase begins, the upper torso is rotated to face the batter. Elbow flexors are active during the early part of the arm cocking phase. About 30 milliseconds before maximum external rotation, the triceps become active and elbow flexors become inactive, resulting in a decrease in flexion torque and thus the elbow begins to extend. At the conclusion of the arm cocking phase, the shoulder is abducted, extended, and externally rotated to about 130° and the elbow is flexed to about 90°. In this position, the elbow begins to be subjected to severe valgus stress. During the arm cocking phase, the arm rotates externally at the shoulder and a varus torque is produced at the elbow to prevent the joint from going into valgus. An abnormal load on the elbow in this phase may lead to serious injury. In the transitional moment from arm cocking to arm acceleration, the shoulder rotates internally, the forearm is in near-full supination, and the elbow flexes another 20–30° increasing the valgus load on the medial side of the joint. This moment is called the moment of explosion or initiation of speed. The arm acceleration phase is the short time from maximum external rotation to ball release; during this phase the elbow extends rapidly to 20° of flexion at ball release, with a maximum speed as high as 2500° per second to 4500° per second. During arm acceleration, the need to resist valgus stress at the elbow can result in wedging of the olecranon against the medial aspect of the trochlear groove and the olecranon fossa. This impingement leads to osteophyte formation at the posterior and posteromedial aspects of the olecranon tip and can cause chondromalacia and loose body formation. The arm deceleration phase begins from ball release and when the arm reaches its maximum internal rotation. Soon after ball release, high compressive forces are generated at the shoulder and elbow to prevent distraction. These compressive forces are greatest with throwing a “fastball” or “slider pitches.” During the later stages of acceleration, the triceps muscle contracts to extend the elbow, placing tensile forces on the olecranon process. The follow through phase begins at maximum internal rotation and ends when the pitcher attains a balanced fielding position. During the follow through phase, the elbow flexes into the resting position. Forces at the elbow during follow through are significantly less than during arm deceleration. This description of the position changes that occur in baseball pitching shows that the elbow is put under severe stress at several points in the manoeuvre, each of which can result in serious injury.

The act of throwing depends on a stable elbow joint. Considerable emphasis has been placed on the role of the MCL in the stability of the elbow to valgus stress. In a number of articles and reviews, Morrey and others refer to the anterior bundle of the MCL as being the primary stabiliser against valgus stress. The radial head is regarded as being the secondary stabiliser to valgus stress, which in the presence of a normal MCL plays no part in resisting a valgus deforming force. Interestingly, there is little in the literature about the role of the muscles acting about the elbow and their ability to resist deforming forces. Hamilton et al. showed alterations in the electromyographic characteristics of the extensor/supinator and flexor/pronator groups during different phases of baseball pitching when comparing pitchers with an MCL injury with those without. Further, it is evident that in some sports—for example, gymnastics—there appears to be hypermobility of the elbow joint. Ellenbecker et al. have shown that in uninjured baseball pitchers there is an increase in the opening of the medial joint space of the dominant arm compared with the non-dominant on valgus stress testing. This may suggest that there is
chronic stretching of the MCL before an injury occurs which presumably could put the MCL at risk.

In baseball pitchers, most elbow injuries occur during the late cocking and early acceleration phase. Bennett and Slocum were the first to divide throwing injuries of the elbow into two types: medial tension and valgus compression. This concept has been refined so that throwing injuries now fall into a broad group termed valgus extension overload syndrome (table 2). During the early part of the acceleration phase, excessive stress causes a wedging effect of the olecranon into the olecranon fossa. This impingement leads to osteophyte formation at the posterior and posteromedial aspects of the olecranon tip. A chondromalacic lesion may be found on the teromedial aspects of the olecranon tip. A osteophyte formation at the posterior and posteromedial aspects of the olecranon fossa. This impingement leads to wedging effect of the olecranon into the olecranon fossa. This impingement leads to osteophyte formation at the posterior and posteromedial aspects of the olecranon tip. A chondromalacic lesion may be found on the teromedial aspects of the olecranon tip.

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MCL, medial collateral ligament.

The mechanism of injury should be explained thoroughly as it is usually the best guide for diagnosis. For example, feeling a pop on the medial elbow while throwing followed by soft tissue swelling and pain indicates an MCL injury. In contrast, the throwers with ulnar nerve pathology often complain of neurological symptoms in the hand.

Examination of the patient requires complete exposure of the trunk and both arms. This provides the clinician with a full view of the neck, shoulders, and arms. The following structures should be palpated and tests carried out. (a) The medial epicondyle as it is the origin of the flexor pronator group and its base is the origin of the ulnar collateral ligament. (b) The medial supracondylar ridge should be examined for osteophytes and any other potential causes of nerve compression syndrome. (c) Tenderness or bony prominence along the proximal one third of the ulnar border may be associated with stress fracture in throwers. (d) The lateral epicondyle is painful in cases of lateral epicondyritis. Tenderness over the supinator muscle and not over the lateral epicondyle or conjoint tendon differentiates radial tunnel syndrome from unresolved lateral epicondyritis. In addition, several other physical findings in radial tunnel syndrome are absent in patients with tennis elbow—for example, pain may be produced with resisted supination or resisted extension of the middle finger (“positive middle finger sign”). On physical examination of patients with posterior interosseous nerve compression, there is weakness in the long thumb abductor, thumb and digital extensors, and the extensor carpi ulnaris, and when wrist extension is tested, there is radial deviation of the extended wrist due to weakness of the extensor carpi ulnaris. (e) The MCL is occasionally referred to as the anterior cruciate ligament of the elbow. It extends from the medial epicondyle to the medial margin of the ulnar trochlea notch. It is difficult to palpate but pain can be elicited on valgus stress testing. Conway et al describe the valgus stress test as follows: “the arm of the pronator teres and triceps play significant roles in power production for the serve. Kibler indicated that the elbow joint contributes 15% of the force produced during the tennis serve. The motion for ground strokes creates smaller demands on the elbow.
standing patient was positioned in the coronal plane of the body, with the shoulder in abduction and external rotation and the forearm supinated. The elbow was flexed 30° to reduce the constraints provided by the configurations of the bones of the elbow. The patient’s hand was held between the examiner’s arm and chest wall; this left one of the examiner’s hands free to apply valgus stress on the elbow and the other hand free to palpate the medial joint line beneath the ulnar collateral ligament. A neurological examination should be performed. It should be determined if the ulnar subluxes or dislocates from the groove. It must be remembered that in some athletes ulnar neuritis may be associated with MCL instability. (g) Valgus extension overload test is positive in the case of painful elbow due to posteros- medial osteophyte in the medial side of olecranon fossa. Impingement in this area is a common finding in throwers. The test is performed by placing the arm in forced extension and exerting valgus stress, simulating the position of the arm during the acceleration phase of pitching. The palpatory finger over the posterosmedial olecranon tip will elicit tenderness. Crepitus may be felt. (h) In patients with radiocapitellar chondromalacia or degenerative changes, if the examiner places a finger over the radial head while gently supinating and pronating the elbow in different degrees, crepitus, popping, and pain may be elicited.

**Imaging techniques**

Plain radiographs of the elbow should include an anteroposterior view in extension and full supination, a lateral view with the elbow in 90° of flexion, both external and internal oblique views in extension, and an axial projection of the olecranon process.

In cases of MCL injuries, routine radiographs may show calcification within the ligament and chronic traction spurs on the ulna or loose bodies. A gravity valgus stress radiograph of both the symptomatic and asymptomatic elbows can be useful in assessing joint line opening, although a negative radiograph of both the symptomatic and asymptomatic elbows can sometimes be seen on plain films, but often CT arthrogram or MRI is needed. A bone scan may be positive in cases in which the plain radiographic findings are unhelpful, but CT/MRI will provide definitive answers. MRI is useful in identifying early osteochondritis dissecans in the elbow. Decreased signal is seen in the capitellum on T₁ weighted images, with increased signal on T₂ weighted images.

CT of the elbow provides excellent bony details; also small loose bodies that escape detection on plain films can be identified with CT. So, in general, CT and MRI are helpful when symptoms persist and plain radiographs fail to define the disorder precisely. MRI is now the imaging method of choice for detecting and staging osteochondritis dissecans. Intact cartilage, contrast enhancement of the lesion, and absent “cystic” defects are in keeping with a stable lesion (fig 1) whereas cartilage defects with or without incomplete separation of the fragment, fluid around an undetached fragment, and unstable lesion denote an unstable lesion. Therefore MRI plays a crucial role in the decision on which patients require arthroscopy and possible intervention. Osteochondritis dissecans has to be differentiated from the normal pseudo-defect of the capitellum, but this defect occurs on the posterolateral aspect of the capitellum whereas osteochondritis dissecans is classically on the anterior aspect. Panner’s disease (osteochondrosis of the capitellum) is similar to osteochondritis dissecans but occurs in children of five to seven years of age and carries a good prognosis. Residual deformity and loose bodies are commonly found with osteochondritis dissecans but are unusual with Panner’s disease. In rare cases, MRI may be helpful in diagnosing lateral epicondylitis. Ruptures of the distal biceps tendon are also readily confirmed by MRI.

Elbow arthroscopy may be a useful modality in the diagnosis and treatment of athletic elbow injuries. It is difficult to learn and requires high quality equipment. For the few experts in the technique, the indications for its use in the elbow have broadened to include loose body and osteophyte removal, synovectomy, joint contracture release, evaluation of undiagnosed elbow pain, evaluation and treatment of acute fractures, and diagnosis of MCL tears. The advantage of elbow arthroscopy is that extensive direct visualisation of the elbow joint can be achieved and treatment undertaken with minimal soft tissue damage. At present it is not possible to be certain that rehabilitation is any faster than with open techniques and therefore whether the athlete can return to competition earlier. Experience with the shoulder has been that the rehabilitation time after arthroscopic techniques is at least as long as after open techniques and some surgeons protect the joint for considerably longer.
Elbow arthroscopy is a technically demanding procedure, and a detailed knowledge of the elbow anatomy is needed to avoid neurovascular complications from improper portal placement. The patient is placed in a supine position on the operating table, with the arm suspended freely over the edge of the table to allow full access to the elbow. The shoulder is abducted to 90° and the elbow flexed to 90°. The arm position is maintained with Chinese finger traps attached to an overhead pulley using a counterweight of 2–5 kg. Elbow flexion maintains relaxation of the neurovascular structures in the antecubital fossa and allows capsular laxity facilitating distension. The soft spot of the elbow is located before portal placement. It lies in the centre of a triangle bordered by the olecranon tip, radial head, and the lateral epicondyle. The elbow joint is usually distended with saline introduced. The anterolateral portal is established first; it is just anterior and proximal to the radial head and is located 2–3 cm distal and 1 cm anterior to the lateral epicondyle. The second portal that is

Figure 1 Imaging results for a 14 year old girl (a gymnast) with lateral elbow pain (diagnosis osteochondritis dissecans of the capitellum). (A) Oblique arthrographic image of the capitellum; sagittal (B) T1 weighted spin echo, (C) T2 weighted magnetisation transfer contrast gradient echo and (D) T1 weighted presaturation inversion recovery magnetic resonance images. The arthrographic image shows an ill defined 10 mm subtle subchondral lucency (curved white arrows) affecting the anterior portion of the capitellum but the overlying cartilage appears intact. On the magnetic resonance images, the osteochondral lesion displays inhomogeneous mainly intermediate signal intensity on both T1W/T2W resulting from some reparative granulation/fibrous tissue (black arrowheads). Some reactive change is noted in the adjacent humeral marrow. The overlying cortex has an ill defined irregular margin, and the articular cartilage (straight white arrows) is thickened and inhomogeneous. However, there is no fluid between the osteochondral lesion and parent bone and the lesion is considered stable.
usually established is the anteromedial. This can be positioned by either an inside out method or an outside in technique. The anteromedial portal is 2 cm anterior and 2 cm distal to the medial epicondyle. The anterolateral and anteromedial portals allow a thorough examination of the anterior compartment of the elbow. Once the anterior compartment has been examined, the direct lateral portal is placed at the soft spot of the elbow. A second lateral working portal can be established 1 cm distal to the direct lateral portal if needed.

The posterolateral portal is made under direct visualisation with the arthroscope in the lateral portal; it is located 3 cm proximal and 1 cm lateral to the tip of the olecranon along the lateral edge of the triceps. The direct posterior portal is established while the scope is in the posterolateral portal. It is placed through the triceps 3 cm proximal to the tip of the olecranon. The posterior portals allow good visualisation of the posterior structures and joint surfaces.

**Principles of treatment**

The basic principles of treatment of all sporting injuries are that the injuries are speedily and effectively treated with the aim of returning the patient to their sport at the same level as previously as soon as possible. Whether these principles are achievable or not depends on the severity of the injury, the efficacy of the treatment modalities, and the motivation of the sports person. Treatment of injuries of the elbow should start with prevention. Prevention depends on several factors. Firstly, correct training techniques are required to ensure optimal performance without injury. This concept presupposes that there is an understanding of both the optimisation of performance and the causes of injury and normal physiological function. It is to be hoped that, for elite and professional sports persons, good quality coaching are available as well as exercise physiologists, etc. Sports persons other than the elite are unlikely to have access to such professionals so that primary prevention may not be an option. Secondly, prevention requires education about proper warm up, stretching exercises, and avoidance of fatigue. Once an athlete develops an overuse injury, an aggressive non-operative programme is undertaken. The acronym PRICEMMM contains the elements of rehabilitation (Table 3). The use of various modalities such as ultrasound depends on the preferences of the therapists involved. Our experience is that these methods have very little use in the treatment and rehabilitation of sports persons. In acute injuries, initial rest and reduction of swelling is required before the formal rehabilitation programme is commenced. Wilk et al. described the phases of rehabilitation after elbow injuries as follows: (a) immediate controlled motion; (b) immediate strengthening; (c) dynamic stabilisation; (d) functional progression.

The progression through each phase depends on the response to treatment. Those who provide treatment for these injuries need to have in mind a set of achievable milestones that will demonstrate resolution of the problem to both the patient and therapist but also, when not achieved, indicate that the problem may be more complex than originally thought. The success of non-operative methods of treatment depends on our understanding of the problem in terms of both normal and abnormal physiology, how well the treatment can be applied, and the motivation of the patient. Moreover, it must be remembered that correction of an elbow problem may need a much more holistic approach both physically and psychologically.

### Some specific conditions

#### LATERAL AND MEDIAL EPICONDYLITIS

The most common problem with the elbow in athletes is lateral epicondylitis, called tennis elbow in the United Kingdom. Lateral epicondylitis is an overuse injury. It is well known that it affects tennis players but it also affects athletes participating in other racquet sports, throwing athletes, golfers, labourers, and musicians. The term tennis elbow is inappropriate and anachronistic as 95% of cases of lateral epicondylitis occur in non-tennis players. Field and Savoie estimate that 50% of people partaking in any sport that involves “overhead arm motions” will develop lateral epicondylitis. It is associated with repetitive and excessive use of the wrist extensors. Pathologically there is degeneration of the origin of the extensor carpi radialis brevis at the common extensor origin. Coonrad and Hooper described the pathology of tennis elbow as necrosis, round cell infiltration, focal calcification, and scar formation in the extensor carpi radialis brevis origin. Nirschl and Pettrone showed that pathologically there is invasion of blood vessels, fibroblastic proliferation, and lymphatic infiltration (angiofibroblastic hyperplasia). As the process continues, mucoid degeneration at the origin of the tendons occurs. The term tendinosis is sometimes used to distinguish the problem from acute tendinitis. The pathological changes involve the extensor carpi radialis brevis tendon in nearly all cases, but the anterior edge of the extensor communis tendon...
is involved in 30% of cases. Plancher et al. reported that the extensor carpi radialis longus and the extensor carpi ulnaris may also be involved. Lateral epicondylitis in young tennis players develops as a result of incorrect production of the single arm backhand stroke. Giangarra et al. compared single and double handed backhand strokes and concluded that using a double handed stroke may allow impact forces to be transmitted through rather than absorbed by the elbow. In right handed golfers, lateral epicondylitis can develop in the left elbow. This occurs in the power portion of the down stroke when the left elbow is extending sharply so that at impact the lateral elbow extensors forcefully and isometrically control hand/wrist motion. On the follow through, the left wrist supinates to cause increased torque on the extensor/supinator origin on the lateral epicondyle.

Kelley et al. were able to show that, in patients suffering from lateral epicondylitis, there was increased electromyographic activity in the wrist extensors and pronator teres at the point of ball impact and follow through compared with uninjured individuals. Lieber et al. studied sarcomere length in the extensor carpi radialis brevis and determined that there is a biphasic lengthening of the sarcomeres and postulated that the eccentric contraction may cause muscle damage. Lateral epicondylitis is a common diagnosis but care must be taken not to miss a radial tunnel syndrome, which may be either presenting in association with the epicondylitis or mimicking it. The incidence of lateral epicondylitis is 47% in recreational tennis players and 45% in world class players. Gruchow and Pelletier also noted a 40% incidence of lateral epicondylitis in recreational tennis players. Nirschl noted a 50% incidence of lateral epicondylitis in tennis players older than 30 in a study performed on 200 club players. The male to female ratio is approximately one. The median age of onset of tennis elbow is

Figure 3  Distal biceps tendon rupture in a professional rugby league player. Sagittal (A) T1WSE and (B) T2WFSE fat suppressed and (C) axial T2WFSE fat suppressed magnetic resonance images. Complete avulsion of the biceps tendon close to its insertion at the radial tuberosity (white arrow). The retracted tendon shows an irregular stump surrounded by fluid (arrowheads).
41 years although it has been diagnosed in children as young as 12 and people as old as 80. Kitai et al\(^6\) compared tennis players with and without lateral epicondylitis. In this study, the players without symptoms were found to be younger and played tennis for fewer hours each week. Most athletes respond to non-operative methods of treatment. This includes activity modification, physiotherapy, and occasionally local steroid instillation. Plancher et al\(^5\) emphasised that most athletes respond to non-surgical treatment but also stated that, in carefully selected resistant cases, surgery is successful in 85–95%. Assendelft et al\(^7\) performed a systematic review of the literature on the use of steroids in the treatment of lateral epicondylitis, and were only able to find very poor evidence for their benefit and then probably only short term. Labelle et al\(^8\) were unable to find any good quality evidence to support any treatment modality for lateral epicondylitis! Comerford P (unpublished work) suggests that, in a situation in which there is dominance of the extensor carpi radialis brevis, lateral epicondylitis will occur and suggests that retraining the primary elbow flexors and lengthening of the wrist extensors is beneficial.

Medial epicondylitis (golfer’s elbow) is only 20% as common as lateral epicondylitis.\(^2\) Some 80% of cases of medial epicondylitis are found in men.\(^9\) Lateral epicondylitis in golfers has been reported as often as medial epicondylitis.\(^9\) Lateral epicondylitis is more commonly occurs in the left arm, whereas medial epicondylitis occurs more commonly in the right arm. Right handed golfers develop lateral epicondylitis in the left elbow, the pulling arm. Medial epicondylitis occurs as a result of hitting the ground rather than the ball.\(^7\) In amateurs, the lateral elbow was found much more commonly to be the source of injury by nearly 5 to 1 than the medial side.\(^9\) Lateral elbow pain most often involves the lead arm.\(^9\) Among male amateur golfers, the elbow was the most commonly injured site.\(^9\) Field and Savoie\(^10\) have suggested that medial epicondylitis is precipitated by repetitive valgus strain on the elbow. The condition typically presents with pain in the region of the common flexor origin but particularly at the junction of the pronator teres and flexor carpi radialis. As with lateral epicondylitis, the treatment of choice is non-operative, but occasionally surgery is required. Increased flexor electromyographic activity has been found in golfers with medial epicondylitis in the address and swing phases of the stroke.\(^7\) Comerford P (unpublished) has suggested that medial epicondylitis may be due to overactivity of the wrist flexors and unloading can result in resolution of the symptoms.

NERVE INJURIES AND COMPRESSION SYNDROMES

Ulnar nerve

Ulnar neuritis is a common finding in patients with chronic elbow instability, and surgery to stabilise the elbow can precipitate similar symptoms. Conway et al\(^{11}\) reported a 21% post-operative incidence of ulnar nerve symptoms and signs.

Childress\(^7\) noted that 16.2% of the general population had evidence of recurrent dislocation of the ulnar nerve. He divided these into two types. In the first there is an incomplete dislocation of the ulnar nerve; in this group the ulnar nerve is susceptible to direct trauma. In the second type, the nerve dislocates completely and neuritis of the friction type develops more often. Recurrent subluxation of the ulnar nerve is more often found in athletes who exhibit congenital musculoskeletal hyperlaxity.\(^7\) Although these previous data seem to indicate frequent occurrence of a subluxating or dislocating ulnar nerve, it is our personal experience that this is a rarity.

Entrapment of the ulnar nerve can occur as the result of a combination of any of four major aetiological factors. (a) Traction injuries to the nerve may occur because of the dynamic valgus forces of pitching especially when combined with valgus instability of the elbow.\(^7\) Apfelberg and Larson\(^7\) showed that the ulnar nerve must elongate on average by 4.7 mm during elbow flexion. Valgus instability due to MCL incompetence results in further traction of the ulnar nerve as it courses around the medial epicondyle. (b) Progressive compression can occur at the cubital tunnel or where the nerve passes between the two heads of the flexor carpi ulnaris. Normally the ulnar nerve is not fixed at the elbow and requires freedom to move longitudinally with elbow movement. Compression at the cubital tunnel can occur secondary to inflammation and adhesions from repetitive stresses. O’Driscoll et al\(^3\) observed that with elbow flexion there is a decrease in the size of the cubital tunnel because of the anatomic orientation of the cubital tunnel retinaculum resulting in compression and flattening of the ulnar nerve. Entrapment at the origin of the flexor carpi ulnaris is due to overdevelopment secondary to resistance weight training exercises. (c) Recurrent subluxation of the nerve due to acquired laxity from repetitive stress or trauma leading to friction neuritis. (d) Irregularities within the ulnar groove such as spurs commonly seen from overseize injuries in throwers.

In the throwing athlete multiple factors may operate in the aetiology of the ulnar neuritis.

Radial nerve

Radial tunnel syndrome caused by a compression of the radial nerve is uncommon but may be confused with lateral epicondylitis.\(^11\) There are four possible sites of entrapment of the radial nerve. The most proximal site is just anterior to the radial head and is caused by a fibrous band at the entrance to the radial tunnel. The second cause of compression is by vessels from the recurrent radial vessels. The tendinous margin of the extensor carpi radialis brevis is the third site of compression, and the fourth is that caused by the arcade of Frohse.\(^4\)

The arcade of Frohse is found as the nerve enters the supinator. The fourth site is the most common. In 5% of cases, the posterior interosseous nerve entrapment can coexist with lateral epicondylitis.\(^8\) In 30% of people, the arcade of Frohse is a thick fibrous band.\(^7\) Behr and
Altchek mentioned that weight lifters and bowlers have been known to develop posterior interosseous nerve syndrome. Compression neuropathy of the posterior interosseous nerve occurs after repetitive pronation and supination of the forearm in tennis players and with the repeated activity of throwing and batting, and in gymnastics. Cabrera and McCue noted that radial tunnel syndrome alone is seen in throwing sports, swimming, golf, tennis, and weight lifting. Radial tunnel syndrome occurs in athletes participating in sports such as weight lifting, rowing, and bowling through vigorous contraction of the extensor muscles. Andrews and Whiteside reported that radial tunnel syndrome occurs in athletes who perform racquet sports and forceful handwork such as rope climbing. These authors also suggested that the most obvious cause of posterior interosseous nerve syndrome in athletes is overuse/muscular hypertrophy at the arcade of Frohse or in the mid or distal supinator muscle.

Radial tunnel syndrome has been referred to as “resistant tennis elbow” because many patients have been misdiagnosed as having lateral epicondyritis with unsuccessful treatment. The presenting symptoms and signs depend on the site of compression. However, there may be no motor or sensory deficits with radial tunnel syndrome. Symptoms and signs may be only found in relation to activities. Nerve conduction studies may not contribute to the diagnosis. Surgical decompression may be required.

**Musculocutaneous nerve**

Entrapment of this nerve has been reported in swimmers, weight lifters, racquet players, and throwing athletes. Compression of the musculocutaneous nerve occurs proximally at the level of the coracobrachialis. In weight lifters, the condition has been found to be secondary to muscle hypertrophy. More commonly, entrapment of the lateral cutaneous nerve of the forearm is encountered. The nerve is compressed between the distal biceps tendon and the brachialis muscle. Entrapment of this nerve has been reported in racquet ball and tennis players probably secondary to repetitive elbow hyperextension.

**Median nerve**

Pronator teres syndrome is uncommon; it has been reported in throwing sports, racquet sports, weight lifting, gymnastics, and contact sports. Entrapment of the median nerve occurs as the result of compression from muscle hypertrophy of the dominant arm in racquet sports for example or from both arms in strength training. Entrapment can occur at the ligament of Struthers, lacertus fibrosis, between the two heads of the pronator teres, and at the flexor digitorum superficialis arch. As with radial tunnel syndrome, the presenting complaint depends on the anatomical site of the compression. Nerve conduction studies are required to disclose the level of the compression, and surgical decompression is required.

**RUPTURE OF THE DISTAL BICEPS TENDON**

Morrey noted that distal rupture of the biceps tendon is rare, accounting for 3–10% of all biceps ruptures. Only 1% of ruptures are reported in women, and occurs in the dominant arm in over 80%. Davis and Vassine postulated that the rupture occurred as a compensation of degeneration in the tendon and hypertrophic lippling at the anterior border of the radial tuberosity. Leighton et al describe the typical case as occurring between the 4th and 6th decades, after a single traumatic event. The rupture occurs at the junction of tendon and bone. Patients present with pain, swelling, and local bruising. Discernible biceps weakness is present but difficult to test because of pain. The treatment is by surgical repair. Morrey et al showed that, in patients treated by non-operative means, there was a 40% loss of supination strength and on average a 30% loss of flexion strength, whereas in those treated by operative means full power was restored when repaired acutely. The standard method of treatment was described by Boyd and Anderson but recent modifications such as re-attaching the tendon with suture anchors has simplified the procedure. A number of authors have reported good return of function after surgical repair. Rupture in sports persons is uncommon in an uncommon problem. In the nine patients described by Leighton et al, only one sustained the injury in a sport (weight lifting). Our limited experience includes recent treatment of a professional rugby league player who sustained his injury while tackling (fig 3). As with all tendon ruptures in sports persons, it is necessary to be aware that anabolic steroid ingestion may be a contributing factor.

**OSTEOCHONDRITIS DISSECANS AND OTHER LESIONS SEEN IN YOUNG ATHLETES**

Elbow injuries are a relatively common occurrence in gymnasts. Rettig and Patel estimated that 5% of sport injuries in gymnasts occurred at the elbow. Chan et al reported that 19 elite gymnasts of average age 13.5 years had chronic stress injuries at the elbow: seven had pathology affecting the capitellum, four had radial head abnormalities, seven had an abnormal olecranon epiphysis, and one had an injury to the medial articular surfaces. These authors also showed that those with articular surface abnormalities did not return to gymnastics. Jackson et al reported 10 cases of osteochondritis dissecans of the capitellum in seven elite gymnasts; only one was still training at 2.9 years follow up. Osteochondritis dissecans of the capitellum is seen most commonly in adolescents. Sport involving repetitive motion—for example, throwing sports—or activities that increase the load across the elbow—for example, gymnastics—are associated with the problem. Most osteochondritis dissecans lesions occur in the dominant extremity. Williamson and Albright reported on a 17 year old female pitcher with bilateral elbow osteochondritis. The treatment of osteochondritis dissecans depends on the extent of the area of devascularisation and whether the
affected fragment of bone has separated from the capitellum. In most adolescents with this problem, the symptoms are resolved by rest and restriction of sporting activity.

The pronator teres syndrome should not be confused with forearm splints which are seen in young girls performing handstands during cheerleading and in gymnasts performing load-bearing activities on the extended upper extremity. Forearm aching pain between the radius and ulna that is exaggerated by activity is considered analogous to shin splints of the lower leg.1

Conclusion

This review gives an overview of some of the factors that must be considered in the aetiology of injuries in the sporting elbow and provides details of some of the conditions that are encountered. It is likely that our approach to both diagnosis and treatment will change dramatically over the next few years as we gain both diagnosis and treatment skills. It is likely that our approach to this review gives an overview of some of the factors that must be considered in the aetiology of injuries in the sporting elbow and provides details of some of the conditions that are encountered. It is likely that our approach to both diagnosis and treatment will change dramatically over the next few years as we gain both diagnosis and treatment skills. It is likely that our approach to both diagnosis and treatment will change dramatically over the next few years as we gain both diagnosis and treatment skills.

Sport injuries of the elbow

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doi: 10.1136/bjsm.33.5.301

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