

3 SYSTEMATIC REVIEW AND META-ANALYSIS

4 The role of sham surgery in orthopedic 5 practice: a systematic review and meta- 6 analysis

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10 ABSTRACT

11 **Background:** To assess whether sham procedures offer comparable outcomes in pain relief, function, quality
12 of life, and adverse events.

13 **Methods:** The literature search was conducted across the PubMed, Scopus, and Cochrane Library databases
14 (2014–2024). Eligible studies included randomized controlled trials and observational studies comparing
15 sham and actual orthopedic surgeries. Data were extracted and pooled using Review Manager version 5.1.4,
16 with standardized mean difference (SMD) as the effect size metric. A random-effects model accounted for
17 heterogeneity. Risk of bias was assessed using the Cochrane tool.

18 **Results:** Seven studies were included. The meta-analysis showed a statistically significant difference favoring
19 real surgery for pain outcomes (SMD = -0.73; 95% CI: -1.23 to -0.22; $p = 0.005$), with high heterogeneity ($I^2 =$
20 89%). Functional outcomes (185 participants across 3 studies) showed no significant difference (SMD = -0.07;
21 95% CI: -1.04 to 0.89; $p = 0.88$; $I^2 = 90\%$). For quality of life (342 participants across 5 studies), the difference
22 was also non-significant (SMD = -0.09; 95% CI: -0.47 to 0.30; $p = 0.66$; $I^2 = 77\%$).

23 **Conclusion:** Sham surgeries produced outcomes similar to real procedures in function, quality of life, and
24 adverse events. However, real surgery provided greater pain relief. These findings suggest that while placebo
25 effects play a role in patient improvement, some orthopedic surgeries still offer meaningful benefits, espe-
26 cially for pain.

27 **Keywords:** Orthopedic procedures, pain management, placebos, treatment outcome, quality of life.

28 Introduction

29 Sham surgery, also known as placebo surgery, is the
30 imitation of a surgical procedure without performing
31 the actual therapeutic operation. The use of a sham
32 control in clinical research is not unique to orthopedics;
33 it originates from a landmark 1959 trial that compared
34 internal mammary artery ligation with a sham operation
35 for angina pectoris and found no difference between
36 the two, challenging a surgical practice that had been
37 adopted without formal evidence [1]. Since then,
38 sham-controlled designs have been extended across
39 numerous surgical and interventional specialties. In
40 neurosurgery, several sham-controlled trials of fetal cell
41 transplantation and gene therapy for Parkinson's disease
42 using a partial burr-hole as the sham procedure found no
43 significant benefit of the active intervention over sham
44 [2]. Interventional cardiology has similarly relied on

sham-controlled designs: the ORBITA trial found that
percutaneous coronary intervention for stable angina did
not improve exercise time beyond a sham procedure [3],
and the SYMPPLICITY HTN-3 trial found no significant
blood-pressure benefit of renal denervation over sham
in patients with resistant hypertension [4]. A systematic
review spanning multiple surgical disciplines similarly
found that most placebo-controlled surgical trials fail to

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57	demonstrate superiority of the active intervention, while	118
58	sham procedures themselves carry a non-negligible risk	119
59	of adverse events [2,5]. These cross-disciplinary findings	120
60	establish sham-controlled trials as a methodological tool	121
61	for distinguishing genuine treatment effects from placebo	122
62	response, of which orthopedic sham surgery represents	123
63	one specific application.	124
64	Sham surgeries are common placeholders in orthopedic	125
65	studies to assess the actual efficacy of surgical intervention	126
66	and to separate placebo response from mechanistic bias.	127
67	Louw et al. [6] conducted a systematic review of six	128
68	randomized controlled trials (RCTs) comparing real	129
69	orthopedic surgeries with sham procedures. The results	
70	showed that placebo surgeries were as effective as actual	
71	surgeries in relieving pain and improving function.	
72	However, the authors warn that these findings cannot be	
73	extrapolated, as the included studies represented a small	
74	subgroup [6].	
75	Sham surgery in clinical studies is a major ethical issue.	
76	Its use remains the subject of active debate among	
77	clinicians, ethicists, and trialists. Critics argue that it is	
78	hard to justify exposing patients to an incision, anesthesia,	
79	and the general risks of surgery when the procedure	
80	cannot provide any medical benefit. They believe this	
81	goes against the principle of non-maleficence, which	
82	means avoiding harm to patients. Critics also argue that	
83	patients may not fully understand the risks of a procedure	
84	that is intentionally designed to have no therapeutic	
85	effect, even if they give formal informed consent [7].	
86	Supporters argue that without a sham control, it is	
87	impossible to separate the placebo effect of an invasive	
88	procedure from its real treatment effect. This could	
89	lead to the continued use of surgical procedures that	
90	are no more effective than a placebo. They believe that	
91	using a sham control is ethically acceptable if there is	
92	genuine clinical equipoise and the risks to participants	
93	are minimized and clearly explained [8]. Ethical	
94	frameworks developed specifically for sham-controlled	
95	trials describe the conditions under which their use is	
96	justified. These conditions include a scientifically valid	
97	research question, an acceptable balance between risks	
98	and benefits, and a rigorous informed-consent process.	
99	The informed-consent process should clearly explain that	
100	participants may receive a sham intervention that is not	
101	intended to provide therapeutic benefit [8].	
102	The primary concern is the potential to subject patients to	
103	unnecessary surgical risks without demonstrable clinical	
104	benefit. Ethical considerations underscore the need for	
105	thorough risk-benefit calculations and informed consent	
106	to inform decision-making about the use of sham surgeries	
107	in research trials [9]. Despite these ethical challenges,	
108	sham-controlled studies are vital in orthopedic research.	
109	They offer a powerful framework for assessing the real-	
110	world impact of surgical interventions, helping mitigate	
111	the risks of continuing treatments that show no efficacy	
112	beyond placebo. The purpose of this approach is to	
113	provide evidence-based best practices that inform the	
114	principles of reconstruction, maximizing patient benefit	
115	while minimizing health resource wastage [6].	
116	Although sham surgery poses significant ethical and	
117	methodological concerns in orthopedic research, it	
	is crucial for confirming the effectiveness of surgical	118
	procedures. To assess the position of sham surgery	119
	relative to surgical procedures, we performed a	120
	systematic review and meta-analysis of current studies	121
	regarding the role of sham surgery in orthopedic practice	122
	[6]. This study aims to update and strengthen the current	123
	evidence by including newer trials and providing a	124
	more comprehensive meta-analysis of sham versus real	125
	orthopedic surgery. We wanted to clarify whether the	126
	conclusions of earlier reviews still valid and to better	127
	understand where real surgery offers benefits beyond	128
	placebo.	129
	Methodology	130
	<i>Literature search strategy</i>	131
	This review followed the methodological guidance	132
	of the Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of	133
	Interventions for the conduct and reporting of systematic	134
	reviews of sham- and placebo-controlled intervention	135
	trials [10]. A thorough electronic search was conducted	136
	using PubMed, Scopus, and the Cochrane databases for	137
	studies published between 2014 and 2024. A combination	138
	of Medical Subject Headings, including “sham surgery,”	139
	“placebo surgery,” “orthopedics,” “orthopedic surgery,”	140
	and “systematic review,” was used to comprehensively	141
	identify all studies related to the comparative analysis of	142
	the role of sham surgery in orthopedics. The references	143
	of the selected studies were also reviewed to find any	144
	additional articles that may have been missed. This	145
	systematic review was registered in PROSPERO	146
	(CRD42024582780) and conducted following the	147
	Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and	148
	Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) guidelines (Supplementary	149
	Materials).	150
	<i>Inclusion/Exclusion criteria</i>	151
	This review includes all studies that compare sham surgery	152
	to actual surgical interventions in orthopedics, focusing	153
	on at least one of the following outcomes: pain, function,	154
	quality of life, or adverse events. Only studies published	155
	in English between 2014 and 2024 that addressed any of	156
	these outcomes were included. The review encompasses	157
	various research designs, including RCTs, prospective	158
	and retrospective cohort studies, cross-sectional studies,	159
	and observational studies. However, we excluded review	160
	articles, case reports, commentaries, editorials, letters to	161
	the editor, animal studies, <i>in vitro</i> research, conference	162
	abstracts, and studies where the data could not be	163
	extracted. Additionally, studies not involving orthopedic	164
	surgical procedures, lacking a sham surgery component,	165
	or published in a language other than English were also	166
	excluded.	167
	<i>Selection of articles and data extraction</i>	168
	All records identified from the initial database search were	169
	imported into Mendeley (LDN, UK) for deduplication.	170
	The deduplicated results were subsequently imported	171
	into Rayyan (MA, USA) for relevance assessment based	172
	on the title and abstract by four independent authors (NA,	173
	GA, BA, and HA). After the initial screening, the full	174

175	texts of the selected studies were assessed by three authors	
176	(TA, MH, and AA) to finalize the inclusion and exclusion	
177	criteria. Any disagreements during the screening process	
178	were resolved through discussion among all authors.	
179	Data were extracted by three independent authors (GA,	
180	BA, and HA).	
181	Statistical analysis	
182	Meta-analysis was conducted using Review Manager	
183	(RevMan, version 5.1.4; Cochrane Collaboration,	
184	London, UK) [11], applying the general inverse-variance	
185	module to analyze continuous data, with the standardized	
186	mean difference (SMD) serving as the effect size metric.	
187	A random-effects model was applied, as we anticipated	
188	heterogeneity. I^2 levels were classified into four quartiles:	
189	low, low-to-moderate, moderate-to-high, and high	
190	heterogeneity, with ranges of 0% to <25%, 25% to	
191	<50%, 50% to <75%, and >75%, respectively. To assess	
192	the risk of bias in the included studies, the Cochrane risk	
193	of bias tool was used to generate both a summary and	
194	an individual article risk of bias bar graph. All analyses	
195	were performed at the 0.05 significance level. Blinding	
196	of participants and personnel to treatment allocation is	
197	difficult to achieve in surgical trials, given that a genuine	
198	incision-based procedure cannot always be physically	
199	or perceptually matched by a sham intervention. This	
200	represents a well-recognized methodological limitation	
201	of surgical trial design generally, rather than a deficiency	
202	specific to the studies included in this review [12].	
203	Continuous outcomes (pain, function, quality of life)	
204	were pooled as SMD using the general inverse-variance	
205	method. Adverse events were also synthesized within this	
206	same inverse-variance framework rather than as a pooled	
207	proportion; consequently, the Freeman–Tukey double	
208	arcsine transformation, which is intended to stabilize	
209	variance in single-arm proportion meta-analyses, did	
210	not apply to our two-arm comparative synthesis. We	
211	acknowledge that a risk ratio or odds ratio, pooled via	
212	the Mantel-Haenszel method, is generally the preferred	
213	approach for dichotomous safety outcomes such as	
214	adverse events, and we identify this as a limitation of our	
215	analysis.	
216	Results	
217	Literature search	
218	Using the search approach previously outlined in the	
219	methodology, 2,273 articles were found across multiple	
220	databases: PubMed yielded 1703, the Cochrane Library	
221	yielded 495, and Scopus yielded 75. After 57 duplicate	
222	articles were removed, 2,216 articles underwent	
223	screening, and 2,138 were excluded for failing to meet	
224	the inclusion criteria. Following an assessment of the	
225	remaining 78 papers for eligibility, 71 articles were	
226	rejected for various reasons, including failure to include	
227	the outcome of interest. Ultimately, seven records were	
228	included in the systematic review and meta-analysis.	
229	This is shown in the PRISMA flow diagram (Figure 1).	
	Study characteristics	230
	All seven chosen publications compared sham surgery	231
	in orthopedics with real surgical procedures (Table 1).	232
	The investigations were published in English between	233
	2014 and 2024 and conducted in various geographical	234
	locations.	235
	Meta-analysis	236
	The overall test for subgroup differences revealed	237
	substantial heterogeneity in treatment effects across	238
	outcomes ($\chi^2 = 7.79$, $p = 0.05$), suggesting that sham	239
	surgery is more effective in some conditions than others	240
	(Figure 2). The meta-analysis of pain-related outcomes,	241
	comprising seven studies and 705 participants, showed	242
	a statistically significant difference favoring comparator	243
	surgery over sham (SMD = -0.73; 95% CI: -1.23 to -0.22;	244
	$p = 0.005$). However, heterogeneity among studies was	245
	high ($I^2 = 89\%$).	246
	For functional outcomes, three studies with a total of	247
	185 participants were included. The pooled SMD was	248
	-0.07 (95% CI: -1.04 to 0.89; $p = 0.88$), indicating no	249
	statistically significant difference between real and sham	250
	surgery. Heterogeneity remained substantial ($I^2 = 90\%$).	251
	In terms of quality of life, five studies involving 342	252
	participants reported an SMD of -0.09 (95% CI: -0.47 to	253
	0.30; $p = 0.66$), again showing no significant difference	254
	between the two groups. Moderate-to-high heterogeneity	255
	was observed ($I^2 = 77\%$). Regarding adverse events, three	256
	studies with 298 participants reported a pooled SMD	257
	of 3.66 (95% CI: -0.38 to 7.69; $p = 0.08$), suggesting	258
	a trend toward more adverse events in the comparator	259
	surgery group, though the difference was not statistically	260
	significant. Notably, heterogeneity was extremely high	261
	($I^2 = 99\%$).	262
	Assessment of quality of the included studies	263
	Most domains showed a low risk of bias, particularly in	264
	random sequence generation, allocation concealment,	265
	and blinding of outcome assessment (Figure 3).	266
	Some studies had unclear risks, including incomplete	267
	outcome data and selective reporting. A high risk of bias	268
	was noted only in blinding of participants and personnel,	269
	reflecting the challenge of maintaining blinding in surgical	270
	trials. Overall, the included studies were generally of	271
	good methodological quality. However, a study by Roos	272
	et al. [15] had a high risk of performance bias (Figure 4).	273
	On the other hand, several studies showed unclear risk	274
	of bias on various items; 2/7 studies had unclear risk of	275
	concealment bias [14,15].	276
	Discussion	277
	In this study, researchers carefully examined the	278
	effectiveness of sham surgeries in orthopedic care. This	279
	review study found that the results from sham surgeries	280
	often match those from real surgeries in terms of pain,	281
	how well patients function, and their quality of life.	282
	This finding suggests that how patients think and feel	283
	about their operation plays a big part in their recovery.	284
	Possible improvements observed after surgery may be	285
	due to the process itself and post-operative treatment.	286

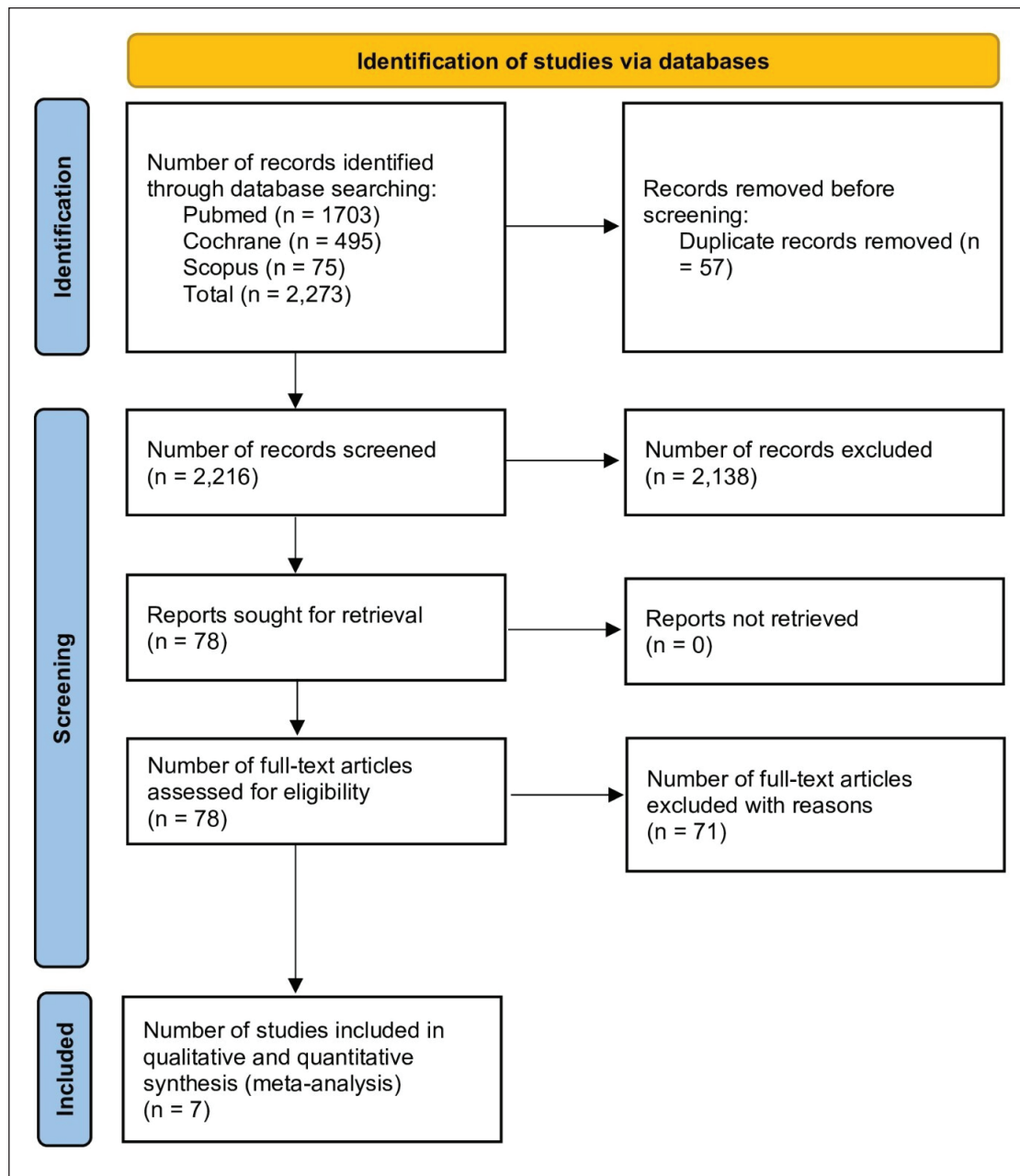


Figure 1. PRISMA flow diagram showing selection and inclusion of studies.

287 These findings are supported by work from Gu et al. [20],
 288 who did a meta-analysis showing that sham surgeries
 289 lead to short-term improvements in pain, showing how
 290 placebo effects and subjective experiences play a big
 291 role in surgical results. A similar review by Louw et al.
 292 [6] concluded that sham treatments decreased pain and
 293 related disability according to patients just as much as
 294 actual surgery did, pointing out the significance of the
 295 overall hospital environment and a patient's anticipation
 296 of recovery. Liu and Yu's research [21] about why
 297 placebo analgesia occurs with sham surgery found that
 298 the invasive action can elicit strong pain relief through
 299 psychological factors, suggesting that such responses
 300 may not be caused by specific surgeries.

301 Paavola and his colleagues [17] studied 67 patients
 302 diagnosed with shoulder impingement syndrome by

comparing arthroscopic subacromial decompression
 with diagnostic arthroscopy in their Finnish Subacromial
 Impingement Arthroscopy Controlled Trial. No
 significant changes in pain scores or functional ability
 were noted for either treatment group over 5 years,
 suggesting that the surgery provided no more benefits
 than those from a placebo [17]. The results from Beard
 et al.'s study [22] are in line with this, as outcomes from
 ASD, placebo surgery, and no treatment were all the same,
 making the ASD procedure less important. Karjalainen et
 al. [23] conducted a study that found surgery for ASD
 does not lead to improvements in pain, daily activities,
 or quality of life compared to those found in placebo
 surgery or conservative care. Similarly, a 5-year follow-
 up study by Bäck et al. [24] found no superior results for
 the ASD group. These researchers found that the results
 of subacromial decompression surgery may be largely

Table 1. Characteristics of the included studies.

Authors	Country	Sample size	Study design	Intervention	Outcome/Results	Conclusion
Krosiak et al. [13]	Australia	26	Randomized-controlled trial, double blind	Surgery procedure	Both treatments enhanced grip strength, pronation-supination range, epicondyle discomfort, and the modified Orthopaedic Research Institute–Tennis Elbow Testing System.	For chronic tennis elbow, surgical removal of the degenerative part of the ECRB did not provide any more advantages than sham surgery.
Randers et al. [14]	Norway & Sweden	63	Double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled study	Sham surgery	Six months after surgery, the operated SIJ decreased by 2.6 points in the surgical group compared to baseline.	At 6 months following surgery, we were unable to demonstrate that minimally invasive SIJ fusion was more effective than sham surgery in treating persistently severe SIJ pain.
Roos et al. [15]	Denmark	44	A sham-controlled randomized trial	APM	At 2 years, both the surgical and sham groups showed clinically significant improvements. The average difference was 8.2 in favor of surgery. However, nine individuals - six undergoing surgery and three undergoing sham - had 11 adverse events.	Only after two years did APM exhibit better benefits than skin incisions; nevertheless, the trial was underpowered, and the high non-blinding and crossover rates make it impossible to generalize the findings.
Fischgrund et al. [16]	US & Germany	225	Randomized, double-blind, sham-controlled multi-center study	Intercept system arm	At 3 months, the ODI significantly decreased in the treatment arm, and 75.6% of patients had a clinically significant improvement over the sham control arm.	CLBP can be safely and effectively treated with radiofrequency ablation of the BVN, which significantly improves pain and disability scores as compared to the sham group.
Paavola et al. [17]	Finland	193	Multicenter, three-group, randomized, double blind, sham-controlled trial.	ASD	There were notable differences in favor of ASD in both arm activity at 24 months and VAS at rest in the secondary comparison (ASD vs. exercise therapy). Because patients with poor outcomes were specifically excluded, the comparison is probably skewed in favor of ASD.	Patients with shoulder impingement syndrome do not benefit clinically from ASD over diagnostic arthroscopy (placebo surgery). After 24 months, both groups' functional results and pain levels significantly improved.
Sihvonen et al. [18]	Finland	146	Multicenter, randomized, controlled trial.	APM	Compared to the placebo surgery group, the APM group had a slightly higher chance of developing radiographic knee osteoarthritis. Results reported by the patients, including WOMET, Lysholm knee score, and post-exercise discomfort, did not differ significantly.	When compared to placebo surgery, APM did not improve knee function or symptoms. Additionally, 5 years after surgery, APM was linked to a marginally higher risk of radiographic knee osteoarthritis.
Schröder et al. [19]	Norway	118	Blinded, three-armed randomized, sham-controlled study	Biceps tenodesis and labral repair	Rowe ratings at 2 years were different for the following groups: labral repair versus sham surgery: 0.6 (95% CI -5.9 to 7.0), $p = 0.86$; biceps tenodesis against sham surgery: 1.6 (95% CI -5.0 to 8.1), $p = 0.64$; and biceps tenodesis versus labral repair: 1.0 (95% CI -5.4 to 7.4), $p = 0.76$. Following labral repair, 5 patients experienced postoperative stiffness, and following tenodesis, four patients experienced it.	For patients with SLAP II lesions, neither biceps tenodesis nor labral repair offered any discernible therapeutic advantage over sham surgery.

APM, Arthroscopic Partial Meniscectomy; ASD, Adjacent Segment Disease; BVN, Basivertebral Nerve; CLBP, Chronic Low Back Pain; ECRB, Endoscopic Radiofrequency Coblation; ODI, Oswestry Disability Index; SIJ, Sacroiliac Joint; SLAP II, Superior Labrum Anterior to Posterior Lesion, Type II.

due to patient expectations, good hospital care, rest, and healing time rather than the procedure itself.

The study by Sihvonen et al. [18], included in our review, investigated the success of arthroscopic partial meniscectomy compared to sham surgery. Both groups showed similar outcomes for pain and activity during the 5-year follow-up. This result is supported by the study comparing exercise therapy with arthroscopic partial meniscectomy (APM) in improving knee function over a 5-year period, and that non-surgical therapies were more effective [25]. A 2023 individual participant data meta-analysis of four RCTs found that surgery did not work better for degenerative tears than sham or non-surgical care [26]. This conclusion is also supported by a recent

review by Lee et al. [27], who found that APM does not make a big difference in pain or how well patients can function, and this was true whether or not patients had osteoarthritis. These studies confirm that APM provides very little benefit for patients with degenerative meniscal tears and who prefer conservative therapy.

In 2017, a randomized clinical trial by Schröder et al. [19] studied patients with type II Superior Labrum Anterior to Posterior (SLAP) lesions who underwent labral repair, biceps tenodesis, or sham surgery. The analysis found few differences between the groups, suggesting that surgery may be no more effective than a placebo in treating SLAP lesions [19]. A systematic review and meta-analysis by Hurley et al. [28] found that biceps

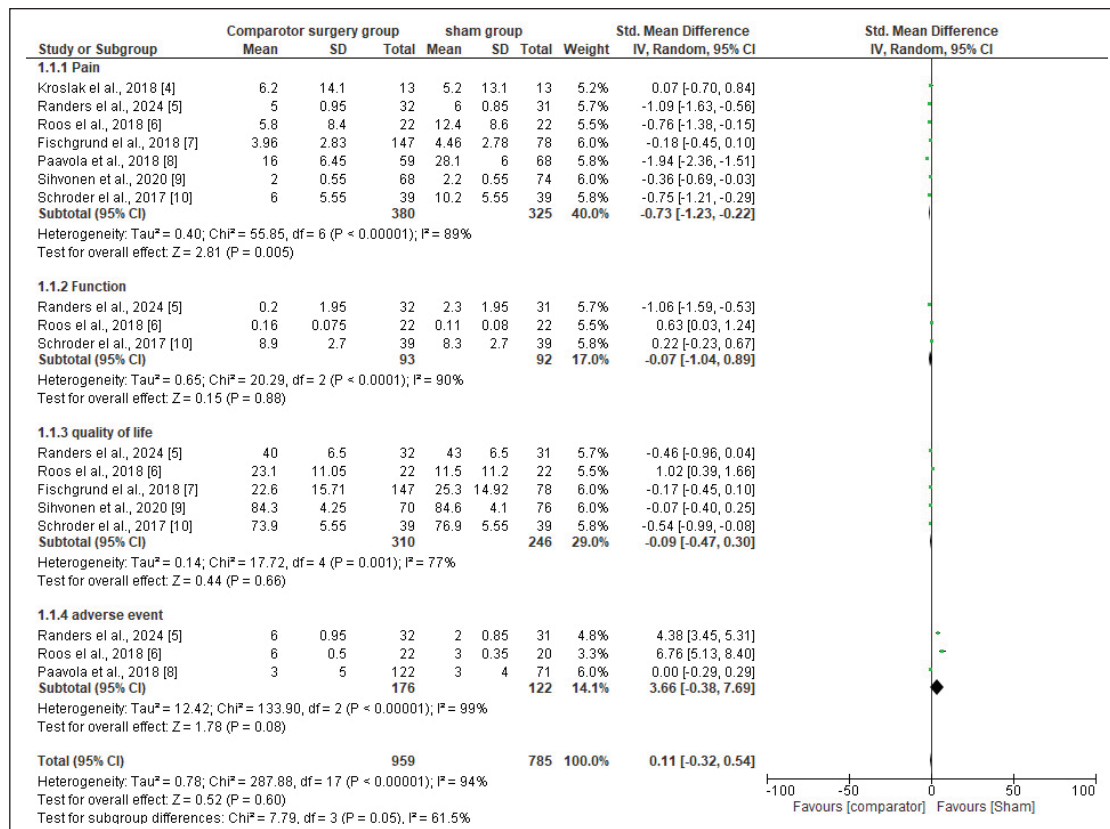


Figure 2. The difference between surgical procedures and the sham surgery method.

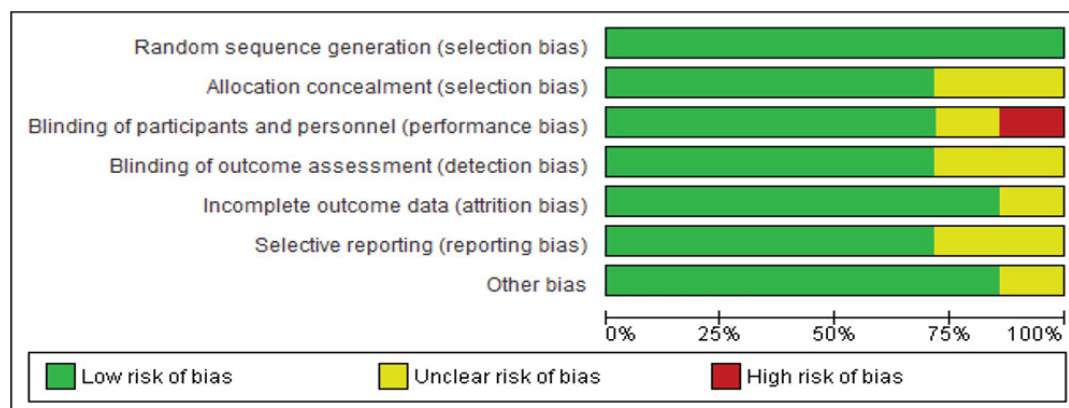


Figure 3. Risk of bias summary.

tenodesis led to greater satisfaction and higher return-to-sport rates than SLAP repair, but functional scores were the same for both techniques. Likewise, Ren et al. [29] noted that tenodesis for biceps pathology yielded superior results and greater satisfaction than labral repair, without increasing the risk of complications, indicating that it is a suitable option for less invasive treatment [29]. Another review study, published by Shin et al. [30], revealed that repairs performed for overhead athletes do not differ significantly in return-to-sport rates, function, or complication rates compared to tenodesis. These results suggest that non-operative care or microsurgery, such as biceps tenodesis, may be just as effective for treating type II SLAP lesions.

Randers et al. [14] looked at how sacroiliac joint fusion (SIFJ) performed against a sham surgery. It was found that the benefits of SIFJ were limited, likely due to placebo effects, making it important to carefully select patients for the treatment [14]. A trial by Polly et al. [31] and his team that randomly assigned patients found triangular titanium implants in SIFJ surgery were better at relieving pain, reducing disability, and increasing quality of life than standard non-surgical care, as long as the right patients were chosen [31]. In addition, Karjalainen et al. [23] stated that the procedure yielded better pain and disability scores than conservative care in people with long-standing sacroiliac joint-related low back pain. Similarly, Capel et al. [32] looked into SIFJ procedures and showed that, compared with placebo

	Random sequence generation (selection bias)	Allocation concealment (selection bias)	Blinding of participants and personnel (performance bias)	Blinding of outcome assessment (detection bias)	Incomplete outcome data (attrition bias)	Selective reporting (reporting bias)	Other bias
Fischgrund et al., 2018 [7]	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Kroslak et al., 2018 [4]	+	+	+	+	+	?	+
Paavola et al., 2018 [8]	+	+	?	?	+	+	+
Randers et al., 2024 [5]	+	?	+	+	+	?	+
Roos et al., 2018 [6]	+	?	-	?	?	+	?
Schroder et al., 2017 [10]	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Sihvonen et al., 2020 [9]	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

Figure 4. Risk of bias of items of each study.

377 responses, they can reliably help with pain and problems
378 with movement. All these studies suggest that when used
379 appropriately and accurately, SIFJ can be beneficial,
380 although its effects may also be due to the drug's placebo
381 effect.

382 Doing sham surgeries on patients in trials can cause
383 ethical worries about their consent and the risk of injury
384 without real help. This concern has been debated in
385 the bioethics literature. Freedman's concept of clinical
386 equipoise is often invoked as the ethical precondition
387 that must hold before patients can be randomized to a
388 sham arm at all [33]. Miller has argued that sham surgery
389 is not inherently unethical and can be justified when
390 the research question is methodologically sound, the
391 risk-benefit ratio is acceptable, and informed consent
392 addresses the possibility of receiving a non-therapeutic
393 sham procedure [34]. By contrast, London and Kadane
394 [35] have argued against the use of sham surgery in
395 several contexts, contending that exposing participants
396 to a procedure carrying real physical risk without any

prospect of therapeutic benefit is difficult to justify even
under conditions of clinical equipoise, particularly when
less invasive comparators are available. This unresolved
tension between methodological necessity and
participant risk continues to shape how sham-controlled
orthopedic trials are designed and reviewed by ethics
boards. Still, studies like this help determine how much
surgery actually helps, rather than the effect of treatment
alone. Ensuring that participants understand and agree to
the risks is crucial during the planning and execution of
sham-controlled trials.

Some of these studies suggest that orthopedic surgery
may not be more effective than a placebo, which means
we should carefully evaluate the reasons for undergoing
surgery. Experts should evaluate both surgical and
nonsurgical methods, taking into account the risks and
benefits, before deciding on surgical procedures where
the results are not well established.

A limitation of our review is that, for dichotomous safety
outcomes such as adverse events, we did not use the

417 risk ratio or odds ratio pooled with the Mantel-Haenszel
418 method, which is generally the preferred approach for
419 meta-analysis of these outcomes.

420 Conclusion

421 Many times, sham surgeries have the same effects on
422 pain, function, and quality of life as surgical treatments,
423 and they do not lead to more side effects. Although
424 comparator surgeries show lower pain scores, the
425 variability found in study results may indicate that a lot
426 of the benefit is due to a placebo effect. This research
427 demonstrates that less invasive techniques should be
428 considered when superiority for surgery cannot be found.
429 In addition, selecting patients wisely and explaining the
430 options are necessary because sham-controlled tests
431 can raise ethical questions. Therefore, more studies
432 should aim to classify patients most likely to benefit
433 from surgery and to minimize bias in placebo-controlled
434 surgical trials.

435 List of Abbreviations

436	APM	Arthroscopic Partial Meniscectomy
437	ASD	Arthroscopic Subacromial Decompression
438	BVN	Basivertebral Nerve
439	CI	Confidence Interval
440	CLBP	Chronic Low Back Pain
441	ECRB	Extensor Carpi Radialis Brevis
442	ESCAPE	Exercise versus Surgery for Chronic
443		Arthroplasty of the Patella/knee (trial name)
444	FIDELITY	Finnish Degenerative Meniscus Lesion Study
445		(trial name)
446	FIMPACT	Finnish Subacromial Impingement Arthroscopy
447		Controlled Trial
448	I ²	Inconsistency Statistic (measure of
449		heterogeneity)
450	MRI	Magnetic Resonance Imaging
451	ODI	Oswestry Disability Index
452	PRISMA	Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic
453		Reviews and Meta-Analyses
454	PROSPERO	International Prospective Register of
455		Systematic Reviews
456	RCTs	Randomized Controlled Trials
457	SIJ	Sacroiliac Joint
458	SIJF	Sacroiliac Joint Fusion
459	SLAP	Superior Labrum Anterior to Posterior
460	SMD	Standardized Mean Difference
461	VAS	Visual Analogue Scale
462	WOMET	Western Ontario Meniscal Evaluation Tool

463 Conflict of interest

464 The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest
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468 Consent to participate

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471 Consent for publication

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Supplementary content (If any) is available online.

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