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Review: Current Concepts in Computer-assisted Hip Arthroscopy

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Abstract:	In the last 15 years, hip arthroscopy has become more popular in addressing femoroacetabular impingement (FAI) because of its minimally invasive approach. However, assessing the adequacy of bone resection when correcting FAI can be difficult because the visualisation and spatial awareness of the joint are poor. The recent development of technology in the field of computer-assisted/ navigation and robotic surgery in orthopaedics as a resource for preoperative planning and intraoperative assistance has been widely reported. As this technology is expected to upgrade surgical planning and techniques, decrease human error and improve operative results by precisely defining the divergent anatomy and kinematics of the hip joint, they could also prove beneficial in the field of arthroscopic FAI surgery. This review attempts to bring the reader up-to-date with the current developments in the field, discuss our experience with navigation and robotics and provide a platform for future research in this arena.

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5 **1 Review**

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6 37 **Abstract**
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9 38 In the last 15 years, hip arthroscopy has become more popular in addressing
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11 39 femoroacetabular impingement (FAI) because of its minimally invasive approach.
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14 40 However, assessing the adequacy of bone resection when correcting FAI can be
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17 41 difficult because the visualisation and spatial awareness of the joint are poor. The
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20 42 recent development of technology in the field of computer-assisted/ navigation and
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22 43 robotic surgery in orthopaedics as a resource for preoperative planning and
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25 44 intraoperative assistance has been widely reported. As this technology is expected
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28 45 to upgrade surgical planning and techniques, decrease human error and improve
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31 46 operative results by precisely defining the divergent anatomy and kinematics of the
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33 47 hip joint, they could also prove beneficial in the field of arthroscopic FAI surgery.
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6 **52 Introduction**

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9 **53** Femoroacetabular impingement (FAI) occurs when the hip joint has an abnormal
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11 **54** shape at the femoral head-neck junction (cam-type) or at the acetabular rim of the
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14 **55** pelvis (pincer-type). It has been recognised as a major risk factor that may lead to
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17 **56** the development of early labral and cartilage damage in the non-dysplastic hip (1-4).
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20 **57** Several clinical studies have shown that surgical correction of these osseous
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23 **58** abnormalities improves clinical function and relieves hip pain (3,5-7). However, in
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26 **59** patients with FAI, due to the complex 3D shape of the offending lesion and the
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29 **60** large soft-tissue mantle around the hip joint, the arthroscopic view of the working
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32 **61** area can be restricted (8). In addition, evaluation of the sphericity of the femoral
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35 **62** head in the treatment of cam-type FAI during hip arthroscopy is difficult (9,10); it is
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38 **63** usually done by means of surgical templates (femoral spherometer gauges) during
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41 **64** open surgical dislocation.

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43 **65**
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45 **66** Recently, computer-assisted navigation and modelling have emerged as a potential
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48 **67** solution to improve the preoperative planning for FAI, including determination of
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51 **68** the location and size of pincer/cam lesions, as well as to increase the accuracy of
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54 **69** intraoperative correction of the osseous deformity. In this review, we will firstly

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6 70 outline the recent developments of computer-assisted surgery in orthopaedics, the
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9 71 anatomy of FAI and the current limitations of arthroscopic FAI surgery. We will then
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12 72 describe the evolution of computer-assisted hip arthroscopy to address these
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15 73 limitations, which is divided into two parts; preoperative planning/assessment tools
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18 74 and intraoperative navigation programmes. Lastly, the future of robot-assisted hip
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21 75 arthroscopy is discussed. The aim of this review is to outline the current conditions
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24 76 and challenges in computer-assisted arthroscopic FAI surgery.
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6 78 **1. Computer-assisted surgery in orthopaedics**
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9 79 The purpose of computer-assisted technology in orthopaedics is to provide
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11 80 patient-specific tools that allow for the reliable implementation of preoperative
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14 81 surgical plans in the operating theatre (11). The ideal goal of this technology would
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17 82 be to integrate high-precision preoperative surgical plans based on prior CT or MRI
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20 83 with actual surgical treatment procedures, by accurate placement of operative tools
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23 84 with quantitative feedback to assess the execution of the surgical plan.
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28 86 These days, there is little doubt that computer-assisted surgery produces more
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31 87 accurate and precise results, and reduces the learning curve in some types of
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34 88 orthopaedic surgeries, including lower limb joint replacement (total hip
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37 89 replacement and total/unicondylar knee replacement), anterior cruciate ligament
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40 90 reconstruction and trauma and spine surgery (12-16). However, there have not been
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43 91 enough data to support improved outcomes after these navigated operations thus
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46 92 far. For example, although navigated total knee replacement is one of the most
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49 93 popular applications of computer-assisted technology in orthopaedics, no study has
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52 94 been available to validate this technology and prove its long-term benefits (17). Also,
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55 95 while navigation technology has been reported to improve the positioning of
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96 components in unicondylar knee replacement and the acetabular cup positioning in
97 total hip replacement, the assumed benefits of technical precision and
98 reproducibility have not to be correlated with better objective and subjective
99 clinical outcomes yet (14,18). The cost of these systems and the learning curve
100 associated with these new technologies should also be solved before extended
101 application.

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102 **2. Pathoanatomy of FAI**

103 The term 'femoroacetabular impingement' was first used in English-language
104 literature in 1999 (19). By definition, FAI is a result of bone abutment of the femoral
105 neck and the acetabulum. Though two distinct types of FAI have been recognised
106 (cam and pincer), most patients present with clinical and radiographic findings
107 which relate to both deformities. Cam impingement refers to a decrease in the
108 femoral head-neck offset, in other words, asphericity of the femoral head-neck
109 junction, which causes a prominent osseous lesion that impinges on the acetabulum.
110 The location of impingement is unique and defined by the proximal-distal,
111 medial-lateral and circumferential margins of the loss of offset; most cam lesions
112 impinge with flexion, adduction and internal rotation of the hip. On the other hand,
113 focal pincer impingement **lesions** cause abnormal edge-loading of the acetabular
114 rim, and it can occur with focal or global acetabular retroversion, coxa profunda or
115 protrusion acetabuli (20,21).

116

117 It is widely believed that the onset of osteoarthritis (OA) relates to the local
118 mechanical environment of a joint (22,23). **In terms of the hip, cam-type FAI is**
119 **recognised as an early cause of joint dysfunction, including pain generation,**

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6 120 degeneration and tearing of the labrum which leads to OA (20,24-27). In the patient
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9 121 with FAI, characteristic injury to the labrum and cartilage has been observed, and it
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11 122 is thought to reflect repetitive micro-trauma from the abnormal osseous
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14 123 morphology. The labrum has several functions, such as hip stability, cartilage
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17 124 nutrition, augmentation of femoral head coverage and a so-called joint sealing
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20 125 effect (28,29). The labrum is often the first structure to be affected by pincer
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23 126 impingement due to mechanical impingement between the femoral neck bone and
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26 127 acetabulum with subsequent degeneration or ossification. In contrast, in typical
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29 128 cam impingement, there is early delamination of the cartilage with labral
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31 129 degeneration and detachment over time, as a result of chronic repetitive stress (1).

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37 131 In the surgical management of FAI, both open and arthroscopic approaches can be
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40 132 used. As an open technique, open surgical dislocation of the hip was described to
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43 133 minimise iatrogenic injury to the articular surface and obtain a wide view of the hip
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46 134 joint safely (30). It is, however, not without risks, including non-union after
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49 135 trochanteric osteotomy, avascular necrosis due to disruption of femoral head blood
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51 136 supply and increased morbidity with a large amount of soft tissue dissection (31).
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54 137 Based on this, hip arthroscopy has evolved to correct osseous morphology which

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6 138 causes impingement, as well as treat both chondral and labral lesions in a minimally
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9 139 invasive manner (32-34). Several authors have reported on arthroscopic treatments
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11 140 for FAI-related pathology with favourable clinical outcomes (32,35-37), but there
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14 141 have been no long-term outcomes. Systematic reviews assessing differences in
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17 142 outcomes between the arthroscopic and open treatment of FAI have also been
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20 143 reported (34,38), and they have concluded that open techniques to address FAI and
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23 144 labral tears are not superior to arthroscopic methods.
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146 **3. Current limitations of hip arthroscopy for FAI**

147 As our understanding of FAI continues to improve, there is an increased interest in
148 computer-assisted planning and navigation to treat abnormalities associated with
149 FAI. The current limitations of arthroscopic FAI surgery can be divided into two
150 perspectives: preoperative assessment and intraoperative execution. While the
151 long-term clinical outcome may be multifactorial, a reproducible and accurate
152 surgical correction of the deformity may be one of the few variables with FAI which
153 is surgeon-controlled. Therefore, the challenges of preoperative characterisation of
154 the mechanical deformities, as well as the difficulties in intraoperative exposure and
155 correction of impingement regions, make computer-assisted surgical technologies
156 particularly useful.

157

158 ***Preoperative planning***

159 Preoperative assessment tools, which include imaging modalities such as
160 radiography and CT and MRI scanning, are all aimed at providing the surgeon with a
161 patient-specific reconstruction of the osseous anatomy as well as a proper diagnosis.
162 Currently, preoperative planning for arthroscopic FAI is based on these static
163 anatomical models which characterise cam and pincer lesions. It is important to

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6 164 recognise the osseous anatomical anomalies when planning arthroscopic FAI
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9 165 surgery; in a recent CT-based study Dolan et al (39) reported that 90% of patients
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11 166 with symptomatic labral tears had structural abnormalities, such as femoral
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14 167 retroversion or excessive anteversion, coxa valga or acetabular dysplasia which
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17 168 includes lateral and/or anterior under-coverage.
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23 170 Today, the alpha angle is the most used tool for the anatomical surgical planning of
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25 171 FAI. Alpha angle is defined by the axis of the femoral neck and a line connecting the
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28 172 centre of the femoral head to the anterior extent of the concavity of the femoral
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31 173 neck in an MRI slice which is parallel to the axis of the neck and passing through the
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34 174 centre of the femoral head (40). Usually, an alpha angle $< 50^\circ$, or a reduction of the
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37 175 alpha angle by 20° (in cases where the alpha angle is very large) is recommended as
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40 176 a target for surgical correction, because this would result in satisfactory restoration
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43 177 of femoral head-neck offset (41). The alpha angle has also been shown to correlate
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46 178 with increased chondral damage, labral injury, decreased range of movement
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49 179 (ROM) and other preoperative symptoms (42,43). It is also useful in assessing
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52 180 surgical correction postoperatively (44). There are, however, some drawbacks to
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55 181 using the alpha angle as a tool. First, as the maximal loss of the head-neck offset is

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6 182 present at different locations in different patients (45). 2D measurement is not
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9 183 enough to assess the anatomical variances. Secondly, it does not take the length of
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12 184 the cam lesion into account. The resection should be advanced into the trochanteric
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15 185 fossa in the case of a large bump. Thirdly, the alpha angle does not always correlate
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18 186 with the clinical ROM. Brunner et al(46) reported that cam-type FAI patients with
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21 187 insufficient offset correction showed a slightly better internal rotation than patients
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24 188 with satisfactory offset restoration. Lastly, a pathological value of the alpha angle
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27 189 itself has been questioned. Clohisy et al (47) could not define an alpha angle
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30 190 threshold beyond which a pathological diagnosis could be made after evaluating
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33 191 the alpha angle in both FAI patients and normal controls.

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35 36 37 193 ***Intraoperative execution***

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40 194 The learning curve associated with arthroscopic FAI surgery is often referred to as
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43 195 'steep' (48,49). It is often difficult to undertake a preoperative plan correctly, as it
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46 196 requires not only a high level of arthroscopic skill and good visualisation but also
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49 197 precise identification of the margins of the osseous bump lesion and a proper
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52 198 decision on the amount of bone resection. Even in the hands of experienced hip
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55 199 arthroscopy surgeons, who have achieved adequate exposure, the margins of the

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6 200 impingement lesion are not always obvious. Patient positioning, cannulation,
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9 201 visualisation and osseous resection are all factors which could lead to potential
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12 202 technical errors.

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17 204 Hip arthroscopy surgeons usually combine arthroscopic appearance with
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20 205 fluoroscopy to perform an intraoperative assessment of an adequate resection. The
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23 206 problem with this method is that both of them are a 2D modality and the 3D
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26 207 morphology is, therefore, constructed only in the surgeon's brain without any
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29 208 objective assessment. Osseous abnormalities are often under-resected, and this is a
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32 209 major cause for revision hip arthroscopy, accounting for up to 78% to 90% of all
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35 210 unsuccessful arthroscopic FAI surgery (50,51). It is common for inexperienced
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38 211 surgeons to stop the osseous resection once an adequate image is obtained on
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41 212 fluoroscopy but some cam lesions extend posteriorly or distally and further internal
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44 213 rotation or an accessory portal may show an inadequate resection. Surgeons should
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47 214 bear over-resection of the bone in mind as well. Over-resection of a pincer lesion
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50 215 can result in iatrogenic dysplasia due to acetabular under-coverage, and
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53 216 postoperative instability and dislocation have been reported to be linked to
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56 217 over-resection (52,53). Over-resection beyond the margins of a cam lesion can

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6 218 damage the cortical bone support of the femoral neck, which may lead to iatrogenic
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9 219 fracture (54). Moreover, in the posterolateral part of the proximal femur, the blood
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11 220 supply to the epiphysis can be damaged by excessive reaming, leading to avascular
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14 221 necrosis (55). These problems reinforce the need for computer-navigated surgical
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17 222 tools which guide surgeons sufficiently during the operation.
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6 223 **4. Current navigation technology**

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9 224 ***Preoperative computer aided assessment***

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11 225 When assessing the deformity and planning for surgical correction preoperatively,
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14 226 dynamic manipulation of the image using applied algorithms or computer software
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17 227 as well as virtual 3D reconstruction and visualisation of the hip joint may be
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20 228 beneficial for surgeons.

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25 230 Some non-invasive preoperative software programmes which help surgeons localise
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28 231 the zone of impingement, quantify the volume of resection and predict
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31 232 postoperative ROM using both anatomical and kinematic data have been reported
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39 235 ● The first comprehensive preoperative assessment tools ('HipMotion') were
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42 236 developed by Tannast et al (56) in 2007. The system performs a CT-based 3D
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45 237 kinematics analysis of the hip joint to define zones of impingement and then
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48 238 predict improvement in ROM after a virtual resection. It was made to address
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51 239 the need for an accurate kinematic preoperative plan and enhanced visual
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54 240 guidance to the surgeon. The native preoperative ROM is calculated by collision

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6 241 algorithms which determine ROM based on points at which impingement
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9 242 occurs after defining the hip centre. Then, the system performs a virtual surgical
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11 243 femoral and acetabular resection which prevents an impingement within
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14 244 normal physiological ROM. After that, using the new parameters, virtual
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17 245 postoperative ROM is simulated by reconstructing the hip joint to assess the
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20 246 efficacy of the planned procedure (57). They used concentric range of motion
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23 247 simulation and did not take any hip translations at the end of range of motion
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26 248 into account. The system offers the advantage of calculating the volume of
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29 249 resection based on an impingement-free postoperative ROM, not a desirable
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31 250 postoperative alpha angle. Validation of this software was performed by
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34 251 comparing the virtually predicted ROM with the actual measured ROM of
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37 252 cadaveric hips. Authors also compared the virtual ROM of normal hips with FAI
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40 253 hips and reported that patients with FAI had significantly decreased flexion,
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43 254 internal rotation at 90° of flexion and abduction (56).
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45 255 ● Using the 3D software 'Mimics' (Materialise, Belgium) to analyse 13 hips with
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48 256 cam-type impingement, Audenaert et al (58,59) reported that during internal
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51 257 rotation in 90° of flexion, the central-medial portion of the cam lesion was
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54 258 found to abut against the anterosuperior quadrant of the acetabular cartilage.
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6 259 Bedi et al (60) measured clinical ROM and calculated virtual ROM using Mimics
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9 260 in FAI patients before and after arthroscopy, and reported excellent correlation
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11 261 in the postoperative improvement between clinical ROM and virtual ROM, with
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14 262 no significant differences by paired Student's t-tests. Mimics is a segmentation
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17 263 software package and does not allow virtual range of motion simulation. Both
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20 264 Audenaert et al and Bedi et al used dedicated software scripts to perform the
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23 265 motion simulation and calculated zones of impingement, and bony shapes were
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26 266 segmented from the CT scan with the Mimics software.

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28 267 ● 'Articulis' (Clinical Graphics, Netherlands) is also a software which automatically
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31 268 performs the 3D segmentation of the CT scans, assesses the deformity, plans
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34 269 for surgical correction and carries out dynamic manipulation of the image. The
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37 270 reliability and accuracy of this system in determining the presence of movement
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40 271 limiting deformities of the femoroacetabulum was validated using a cadaveric
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43 272 model with artificial cam deformities (Figure 1) (61).
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45 273 ● The 'Dyonics PLAN Hip Impingement Planning System' (Smith & Nephew, USA)
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48 274 provides not only a virtual 3D reconstruction and visualisation of the hip joint
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51 275 but also a platform for intraoperative assistance by performing virtual
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54 276 correction and creating a virtual fluoroscopic image that can be compared with

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6 277 intraoperative fluoroscopic images, thus verifying adequate bony resection.

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8 278 Milone et al (62) demonstrated the effectiveness of this software compared

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11 279 with traditionally reformatted CT scans and plain radiographs.

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14 280 They can also be used postoperatively for the assessment of the amount of osseous

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17 281 shaving in the cam or pincer lesions.

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22 283 There are, however, some limitations to the use of these systems. The data are

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24 284 based on a predefined centre of rotation around which the femoral head moves,

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26 285 and they therefore ignore additional translations or detected collisions. Stated

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28 286 another way, the software does not account for the translation which occurs with

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30 287 hip movement, weight-bearing and muscular activation (63). Furthermore, the

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32 288 CT-based model only allows for osseous impingement and its surgical correction

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34 289 with an osteoplasty of the acetabular and femoral bone. It does not account for

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36 290 impingement of periarticular soft tissues such as labrum. Soft-tissue laxity or

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38 291 impingement can affect ROM and clinical outcomes after surgical intervention.

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40 292 Therefore, these systems may overestimate the potential gains in movement that

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42 293 can be achieved after surgery. In addition, there have been no comparative trials to

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44 294 date determining the superiority of using these systems in the clinical setting.

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8 296 ***Intraoperative navigation***

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11 297 Navigation programmes guide the surgeon to precisely reproduce preoperative
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14 298 plans intraoperatively. The components of these types of navigation systems
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17 299 generally consist of these three parts:

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20 300 ● Measurement devices to trace the surgical tool;
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22 301 ● display device to show information about the surgery;
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25 302 ● marker on the surgical tool.
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31 304 Intraoperative navigation requires matching the preoperative 3D-CT scan to the
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34 305 intraoperative situation. This registration process to establish correspondence
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37 306 between both situations can be image-based (using fluoroscopy) or imageless
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40 307 (using a digitised pointer to mark anatomical landmarks on the bone). Both
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43 308 image-based and imageless protocol require an osseous pin with a calibration
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46 309 marker attached to it that can record the motions of the femoral segments and
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49 310 adjust the navigation feedback accordingly, which avoids the necessity to repeat
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52 311 the registration step each time the femoral position is changed. Example of
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54 312 intraoperative navigation is shown in Figure 2.

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9 314 Developments and outcomes of various intraoperative navigation programmes
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11 315 have been reported recently.

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14 316 ● Brunner et al (46) uploaded preoperative CT images of patients into a modified
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17 317 version of BrainLAB Hip-CT (BrainLAB AG, Germany). A C-arm adapter ('Fluoro
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20 318 3D'; Vector Vision, USA) was used to synchronise intraoperative fluoroscopy
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23 319 with the 3D CT dataset. This allowed real-time feedback of surgical instrument
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26 320 placement in relation to the femoral head-neck junction. In 50 cam-type FAI
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29 321 patients who were divided into a navigated arthroscopy group and a without
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32 322 navigation group, the navigation software did not increase the rate of operative
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35 323 success (ROM and non-arthritic hip scores) and surgical time was significantly
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38 324 longer in the navigated group. This might be partially due to the fact that this
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41 325 prototype software did not allow preoperative planning and thus did not
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44 326 highlight the zone of impingement or the amount of resected bone.

45 327 ● Monahan and Shimada (64) were the first to develop an encoder linkage
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48 328 system to track surgical instruments during hip arthroscopy. An encoder is a
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51 329 device which captures tool movement and orientation and it eliminates the
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54 330 problem of occlusion with standard optical tracking systems. The encoder

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6 331 linkages are calibrated with preoperative, patient-specific 3D imaging data so
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9 332 the position of the surgical tools can be verified with patient anatomy. In other
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11 333 words, the system displays the real-time surgical instrument position relative to
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14 334 patient anatomy on a screen with a preoperatively generated, patient-specific
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17 335 3D image. The system incorporates soft tissue as well as bone anatomy and
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20 336 therefore. also serves as a useful aid for safe portal placement.

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23 337 ● Almoussa et al (65) reported that the same shaping accuracy of the femur could
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25 338 be achieved between an experienced surgeon and a novice surgeon when a
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27 339 navigation system was used to treat cam-type FAI. In this study, a preoperative
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29 340 plan was generated from CT scans and the BrainLAB navigation system, and
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31 341 real-time tracking was performed by surgeons using a pointer with marker
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33 342 arrays to ensure resection was performed according to the preoperative plan.
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35 343 The intraoperative images used in this study were dynamic 2D CT scans in
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37 344 sagittal and axial planes of the head-neck junction, rather than a single image of
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39 345 a virtually 3D reconstructed hip. However, the results clearly indicated that
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41 346 navigated arthroscopic surgery based on preoperative imaging and planning
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43 347 may be useful to reduce the steep learning curve of arthroscopic FAI surgery.
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53 348 ● Van Houcke et al (66) reported the outcome of randomised controlled trial
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6 349 which compared the cam resection accuracy via the conventional hip
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9 350 arthroscopy technique with the navigation technique. Postoperatively, the
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11 351 mean maximal alpha angle improved significantly in the navigated group
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14 352 compared with the conventional group, especially in the 12 o' clock position.
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17 353 However, positioning time and radiation exposure were significantly longer in
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20 354 the navigated group.
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25 356 Other than those studies shown above, several other studies have reported on
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28 357 cadaver models. Kendoff et al (67) evaluated an image-based approach in a cadaver
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31 358 study of six hips and found that a combined CT-fluoroscopy matching navigated
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34 359 procedure allowed for a reproducible registration process for navigated FAI surgery
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37 360 at the femoral site, with high precision at the femoral neck and head-neck junction
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40 361 area with mean deviations below 1 mm. Also, using 12 paired cadaver hips with a
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43 362 virtual cam lesion, Audenaert et al (68) reported that the estimated accuracy of
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46 363 image-based registration by means of 3D fluoroscopy had a mean error of 0.8 mm,
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49 364 while the estimated accuracy of imageless registration in the arthroscopic setting
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52 365 was poor, with a mean error of 5.6 mm. Ecker et al (69) developed some
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54 366 computer-assisted planning and navigation software which uses preoperative ROM
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6 367 analysis on 3D models of patients' pelvic and femoral bone so that a virtual
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9 368 resection can be performed. Intraoperatively, the planned virtual resection area is
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11 369 shown as a highlighted colour-coded distance map, which aids surgeons awareness
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14 370 of the depth of resection. Once the resection is started, the application alters the
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17 371 colour-coded map in real time to prevent excessive or inadequate
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20 372 osteochondroplasty.
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373 **5. Future perspectives: robot-assisted surgery**

374 Robot-assisted surgery is definitely the ultimate surgical technology, defined as a
375 translation from the quantitative assessment produced by navigation to an
376 automated mechanical surgical action by a robot, i.e. a robotic arm mounted with
377 surgical instruments that can automate the entire surgical procedure following a
378 preoperative surgical plan. This provides a greater level of precision, allowing for
379 unmanned or even remote surgery (9,53,70).

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381 Today, the 'da Vinci' (Intuitive Surgical, USA) telerobotic platform is the most widely
382 used robotic surgical system, and its technical specifications have attracted interest.

383 This system allows the surgeon to sit remotely at a console and control the
384 movements of robotic arms while viewing the operative site in 3D, and it is being
385 used in procedures such as hysterectomies (71), prostatectomies (72) and gastric
386 bypass (73). Currently, robotic hip arthroscopy using this system is feasible only in a
387 cadaveric model (74). However, remote control of articulated instruments with full
388 ROM at the tip might enable parts of the hip joint that are inaccessible with rigid
389 instrumentation to be reached (75,76) and the strong force that the system offers
390 may be sufficient to work effectively with bony structures and to handle the long

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6 391 distance between skin level and the location of surgery. It is assumed that it would
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9 392 be feasible to use this system to perform basic hip arthroscopy due to the basic
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11 393 similarity of instrument design of laparoscopic and arthroscopic surgery (74). The
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14 394 'Tactile Guidance System' (MAKO Surgical, USA), which is currently used to perform
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17 395 partial knee and total hip replacements, has been applied in a study on
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20 396 robotic-assisted femoral osteochondroplasty for FAI, although it was tested in
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23 397 sawbone models only. Nonetheless, this system appears promising, as its precision
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26 398 and accuracy over freehand surgery have been proven in well-constructed
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29 399 experimental models by Cartiaux et al (77).

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34 401 An overall limitation to robotic arthroscopy is the restricted space inside the hip
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37 402 joint. Therefore, future instruments for robotic hip arthroscopy in patients will have
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40 403 to be both small in diameter and flexible. It is clear that robotic hip arthroscopy is at
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43 404 a very early stage at present. However, robotic technology has the potential to
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46 405 revolutionise hip arthroscopy and extend the number of reachable areas of the joint
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49 406 as well as to enable surgeons to perform more complex and precise tasks in the
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51 407 restricted spaces of the hip.

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6 408 **Conclusion**

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9 409 The recent advancement of computer-assisted surgery as a resource for
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11 410 preoperative planning and intraoperative assistance in hip arthroscopy has provided
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14 411 more precise surgical planning and the potential for improved operative results.
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17 412 There have been several studies published describing various technologies which
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20 413 have shown potential for increasing surgical precision in treating FAI. However, they
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23 414 are not without limitations, including a steep learning curve, lack of insight into
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26 415 soft-tissue pathology and restriction to only concentric hips. Future comparative
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29 416 trials determining the efficacy of computer-assisted hip arthroscopy surgery are
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31 417 required.

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39 420 **Conflict of Interest**

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45 422 No benefits in any form have been received or will be received from any commercial
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48 423 party related directly or indirectly to the subject of this article.

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6 425 **Legends to figures**
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11 427 **Figure 1**
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14 428 Analysis of simulated bony range of motion in Articulis and suggested preoperative
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17 429 resection plan on the femoral neck in order to normalise the range of motion
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20 430 defects
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25 432 **Figure 2**
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28 433 The femoral marker (a) and fluoroscopy (B) are calibrated using the rigid pointer. An
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31 434 intraoperative fluoroscopy scan limited to the proximal femur is performed (C) in
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34 435 order to allow for image based matching of the preoperative plan. Finally, live
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37 436 resection control in relation to the preoperative plan can be performed using the
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40 437 rigid pointer and fluoroscopy is no longer required (D)
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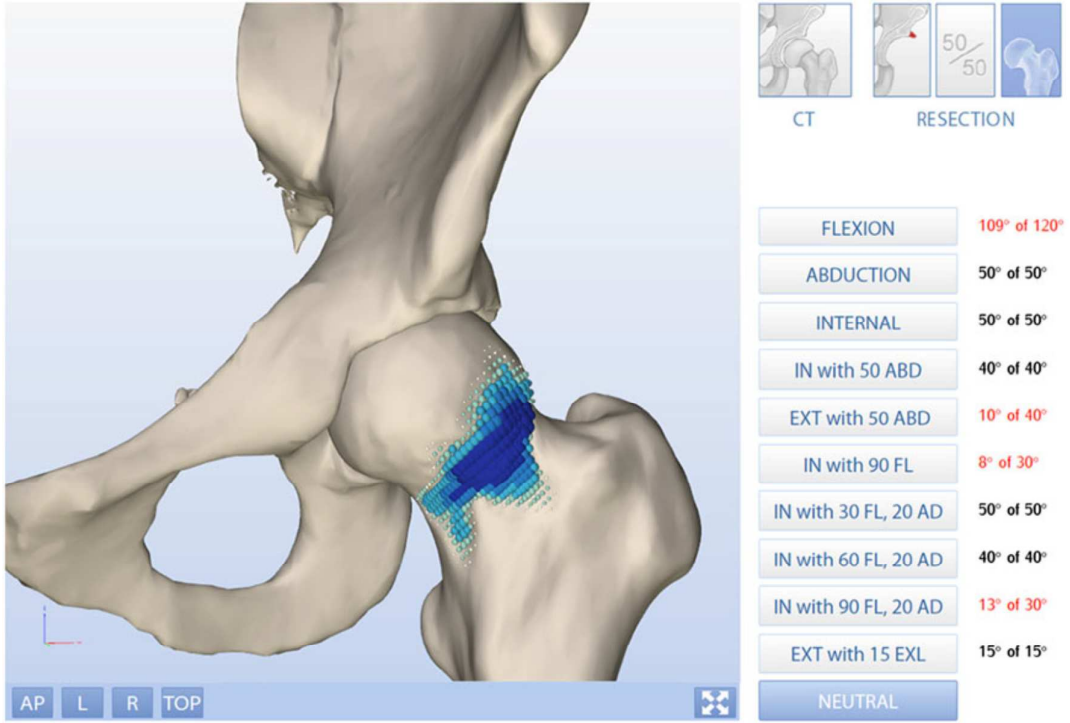
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52 615 **66. Van Houcke J, Khanduja V, Nakano N, Krekel P, Pattyn C, Audenaert E. Accuracy**
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1 **Figure 1**

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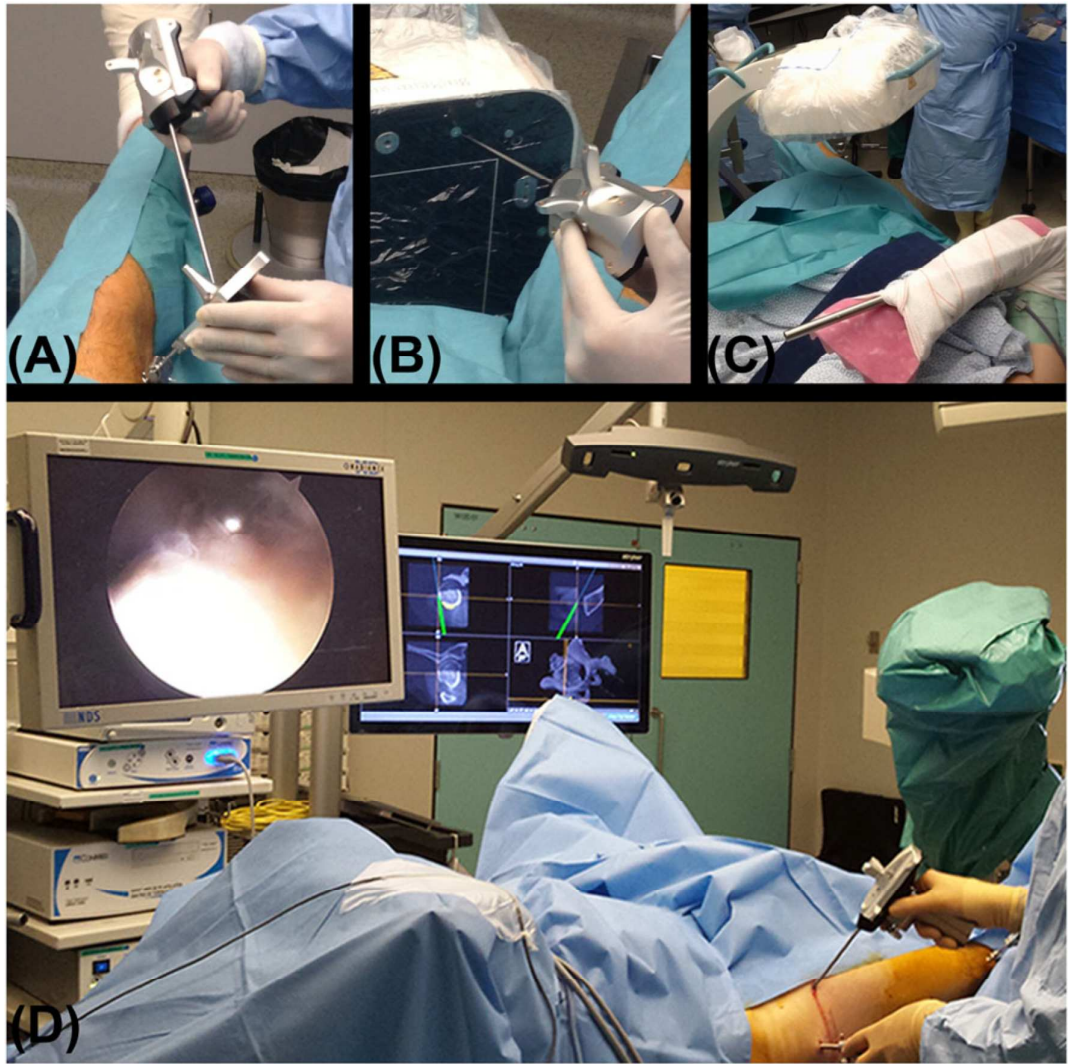
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For Peer Review

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1 **Figure 2**

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