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The role of high-fidelity simulation in the acquisition of endovascular surgical skills: a systematic review.

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PII: S0890-5096(23)00125-5

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avsg.2023.02.025>

Reference: AVSG 6676

To appear in: *Annals of Vascular Surgery*

Received Date: 3 January 2023

Revised Date: 15 February 2023

Accepted Date: 21 February 2023

Please cite this article as: Gomaa AR, Grafton-Clarke C, Saratzis A, Davies RSM, The role of high-fidelity simulation in the acquisition of endovascular surgical skills: a systematic review., *Annals of Vascular Surgery* (2023), doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avsg.2023.02.025>.

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1 **Title:** The role of high-fidelity simulation in the acquisition of endovascular surgical skills: a
2 systematic review.

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11 **Category:** Review Article

12

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22 **The role of high-fidelity simulation in the acquisition of endovascular surgical**
23 **skills: A systematic review.**

24

25 **Abstract**

26 **Introduction**

27 The widespread introduction of minimally invasive endovascular techniques in
28 cardiovascular surgery has necessitated a transition in the psychomotor skillset of
29 trainees and surgeons. Simulation has previously been used in surgical training;
30 however, there is limited high quality evidence regarding the role of simulation-based
31 training on the acquisition of endovascular skills.

32

33 This systematic review aimed to systematically appraise the currently available
34 evidence regarding endovascular high-fidelity simulation interventions, to describe
35 the overarching strategies used, the learning outcomes addressed, the choice of
36 assessment methodology, and the impact of education on learner performance.

37

38 **Methods**

39 A comprehensive literature review was performed in accordance with the Preferred
40 Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) statement
41 using relevant keywords to identify studies evaluating simulation in the acquisition of
42 endovascular surgical skills. References of review articles were screened for
43 additional studies.

44

45 Results

46 A total of 1081 studies were identified (474 after removal of duplicates). There was
47 marked heterogeneity in methodologies and reporting of outcomes. Quantitative
48 analysis was deemed inappropriate due to the risk of serious confounding and bias.
49 Instead, a descriptive synthesis was performed, summarising key findings and
50 quality components. Eighteen studies were included in the synthesis (15
51 observational, 2 case-control and 1 randomised control studies). Most studies
52 measured procedure time, contrast usage, and fluoroscopy time. Other metrics were
53 recorded to a lesser extent. Significant reductions were noted in both procedure and
54 fluoroscopy times with the introduction of simulation-based endovascular training.

55

56 Conclusion

57 The evidence regarding the use of high-fidelity simulation in endovascular training is
58 very heterogeneous. The current literature suggests simulation-based training leads
59 to improvements in performance, mostly in terms of procedure and fluoroscopy time.
60 High-quality randomised control trials are needed to establish the clinical benefits of
61 simulation training, sustainability of improvements, transferability of skills and its
62 cost-effectiveness.

63 **1 Introduction**

64 In recent years, vascular surgery has seen the introduction of several endovascular
65 techniques. This has resulted in a paradigm shift with increasing evidence supporting
66 the usage of endovascular techniques for the treatment of aneurysmal disease,
67 peripheral arterial disease, and venous pathologies.^[1-3] This shift has been
68 accompanied by a multitude of challenges and changes in training healthcare
69 professionals.^[4] Endovascular technologies have necessitated a transition in the
70 psychomotor skillset of trainees and established surgeons, as they adapt to entirely
71 new modes of practice. This is further compounded by rapid technological
72 innovations and constant introduction of new devices.^[5]

73

74 The aim of specialist vascular surgical training programmes is to produce surgeons
75 capable of independent practice in open and interventional techniques.^[6]

76 Internationally, the training and education of vascular surgeons on the constantly
77 evolving and ever growing endovascular techniques is crucial for their continuing
78 professional development. However, within the United Kingdom, vascular trainees
79 within these programmes are recognised to be the most dissatisfied trainees.^[7, 8]

80 Reasons include an imbalance between training time and service provision;^[9] limited
81 surgical experience;^[6, 10] and the loss of the 'firm structure' associated with the
82 transition to shift systems.^[6] A recent report showed that up to 78% of trainees spent
83 no time in theatre or performing core surgical skills during their most recent workday,
84 and between 78% and 95% spent no time receiving any formal operative teaching.^[8]

85 This lack of case-volume experience has important implications for patients.^[11]

86 Similar experiences have been reported in the United States where access to

87 specialised care has languished with opportunities for specialty training in vascular
88 medicine remain limited. In their recent review, Eberhardt et al. highlight that
89 inadequate funding and under-recognition by accreditation and certification bodies
90 are the primary driving forces for limited access to training within vascular
91 medicine.^[12] The situation only worsened in light of the COVID-19 pandemic, with
92 significant reduction in operative experience necessitating extension to training for
93 many trainees in order to meet the required level of competence.^[13] The requirement
94 to obtain specific operative competencies within a restricted and curtailed training
95 period has left trainees and educators seeking novel and innovative methods to gain
96 competence and confidence within their training programmes.^[14]

97

98 High-fidelity simulation is a form of simulation training that provides the learner with
99 an environment which offers a significant degree of realism and believability to the
100 teaching experience through the combined utilisation of: equipment, setting, scenario
101 and personnel.^[15-18] It presents an opportunity for developing experience and
102 competence in a wide-range of procedures within a safe space.^[19, 20] The simulated
103 environment acts as a medium for structured mentoring with the added benefit of
104 learning from mistakes, which entirely mitigates against the risk of patient injury and
105 the medicolegal liability.^[21] Table I summarises the different types of simulation
106 modalities utilised for acquisition of procedural skills alongside their advantages and
107 disadvantages. Given that most endovascular technologies were adopted in first-line
108 clinical practice only in recent years, there is uncertainty of the value of simulation-
109 based training in gaining endovascular skills.

110

111 This systematic review aims to appraise the currently available evidence regarding
112 endovascular simulation interventions, to describe the overarching strategies used,
113 the learning outcomes addressed, the choice of assessment methodology, and the
114 impact of education on learner performance.

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115 **2 Material and Methods**

116 This review was not suited to one single research paradigm and therefore both
117 constructivism and positivism methodology were employed. Positivism was used to
118 describe and justify the educational interventions and associated assessments to
119 confirm effectiveness and define pedagogy.^[22] A constructivist approach was also
120 implemented, through clarification of the underpinning theoretical frameworks that
121 inform education and assessment methodology.^[23] By adopting a contextual realism
122 ontological approach, our review allows us to present a description of which
123 endovascular simulation interventions work, and in what specific educational
124 contexts, which is an appropriate approach in a field contaminated by educational
125 and methodological heterogeneity.^[22] The manuscript was reported in accordance
126 with the STORIES statement; a publication standard for healthcare education
127 evidence synthesis.^[24]

128

129 **2.1 Search Strategy**

130 An initial scoping search was conducted to identify and refine the search syntaxes
131 and to establish the relevant inclusion and exclusion criteria. A study protocol was
132 designed which involved a multi-investigator search strategy and document retrieval
133 process. A comprehensive literature review was performed in accordance with the
134 Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA)
135 statement using relevant keywords.^[25] The specific endovascular techniques and
136 procedures eligible for inclusion were chosen through consensus, and represent the
137 most performed endovascular procedures, in which competency would be expected
138 by the end of vascular surgical training in the UK (Table II). This review embraced all

139 study designs which utilised high-fidelity endovascular immersive extended-reality
140 simulators i.e. virtual reality, augmented reality, and mixed reality as an education
141 intervention with the aim of improving technical skill in relation to pre-specified
142 endovascular procedures. For inclusion, studies needed to describe both baseline
143 and post-intervention performance metrics, to allow for the measurement of change
144 resulting from the educational intervention. Studies embracing medical students,
145 surgical trainees, and consultant surgeons or interventionalists were eligible for
146 inclusion. Research describing outcomes at all levels of Kirkpatrick's hierarchy were
147 eligible for inclusion.^[26]

148 With the aid of a clinical librarian, the following online databases were searched from
149 inception date of database up to June 2022 using a standardised search strategy:
150 EMBASE, MEDLINE, Google Scholar, Cochrane, and AMED. Abstracts available
151 from relevant education and vascular surgery societies, including the Association for
152 Medical Education in Europe (AMEE), Association for the Study of Medical
153 Education (ASME), Society for Vascular Surgery (SVS), Association of Surgeons in
154 Training (ASiT) and The Royal College of Surgeons were also searched for the last 6
155 meetings to ensure any study currently under review, but not fully published, were
156 included. The reference lists of the studies meeting the inclusion criteria were hand-
157 searched for additional relevant studies, as were previous systematic reviews
158 reporting on endovascular simulation, as identified through the scoping searches.^{[27,}
159 ^{28]} The search syntaxes and an example search strategy are presented in Table III.

160

161 **2.2 Data extraction and quality assessment**

162 Titles of the studies yielded from the search strategy were reviewed by AG and
163 CGC. Of those titles with potential relevance to the research question, the abstracts
164 were independently screened by AG and CGC using an abstract screening tool
165 (Appendix A). Any study passing the abstract screening process proceeded to full-
166 text eligibility assessment, in which AG and CGC independently and blindly validated
167 studies against a full manuscript screening tool (Appendix B). Disputes at the
168 abstract screening stage and full-text eligibility assessment stage were resolved by
169 consensus between AG and CGC.

170 A data extraction form was developed which included a research quality assessment
171 tool, utilising guidance from Best Evidence Medical Education, PRISMA and Reed et
172 al. (Appendix C and D). [29-31] The components of the quality assessment were:
173 backgrounds and objectives, research design, education intervention, assessment,
174 results and conclusions, and impact. Each quality item was further classified as
175 assessing research methodology quality or reporting quality. The research
176 methodology quality assessment was completed as a 'yes/no' response to six
177 questions focusing on describing the evidence-base, defining the study objectives,
178 executing an appropriate study design, implementation of control groups, evidence
179 of randomisation, and appropriate use of statistical tests. The reporting quality
180 assessment involved twelve items, which included three 'yes/no' items reporting on
181 the study design, learner characteristics and matching of outcomes to objectives.
182 Eight reporting quality indicators were scored on a three-point Likert scale, and
183 included: description of the educational intervention, process and outcome of
184 assessment, educational context, and resources utilised; discussion of theoretical
185 models underpinning both the choice of intervention and assessment; details of the

186 application of psychometrics to assessment; and the provision of materials to allow
187 for assessment replication. The educational impact of interventions were classified
188 in accordance with Kirkpatrick's adapted hierarchy,^[32] in-line with guidance provided
189 by Best Evidence Medical and Health Professional Education (BEME).^[29]

190

191 **2.3 Data analysis**

192 The initial scoping search revealed a significant degree of heterogeneity in
193 methodology and reporting outcomes. The relevant data, results and conclusions
194 were extracted and collated manually from the studies using the electronic data
195 extraction form.

196

197 Quantitative analysis was deemed inappropriate due to the risk of serious
198 confounding and bias. Instead, a descriptive synthesis of these studies was
199 performed, summarising key findings and quality components.

200 **3 Results**

201 **3.1 Search results**

202 We identified 474 records following initial searching of the databases and alternative
203 sources and following removal of duplicate results. After applying our eligibility
204 criteria, title and abstract screening, and final full-text review, 18 studies met our
205 criteria for inclusion in this review.^[5, 33-49] The PRISMA flow diagram detailing study
206 selection is shown in Figure 1. Agreement between the two reviewers at the full text-
207 eligibility assessment was good (kappa statistic: 0.90). An overview of the included
208 papers is presented in Table II. Data were extracted by AG and CGC, who achieved
209 concordance in 92% of quality ratings.

210

211 **3.2 Study participants and design**

212 Table IV summarises the key information points from the included studies such as:
213 demographics, study design, simulation intervention, assessment tool and results of
214 the eighteen included studies.

215

216 Of the eighteen studies, nine were based in the United States,^[33-36, 42, 43, 45-47] seven
217 in the United Kingdom,^[5, 37, 38, 40, 44, 48, 49] and two in Italy.^[39, 41] The mean number of
218 participants per study was 21 (range: 5 – 100, median: 15, pooled total: 378) in the
219 eighteen included studies. The participants varied broadly in speciality and stage of
220 training. The most frequent participating groups were defined as: vascular surgery
221 trainees / residents (in six (33.3%) studies), radiology trainees / residents (in four
222 (22.2%) studies), general surgery trainees / residents (in four (22.2%) studies),

223 medical students (in four (22.2%) studies), and experienced endovascular surgeons
224 and interventionalists (in seven (38.9%) studies). Fifteen of the included studies were
225 observational studies,^[5, 33, 35-38, 40-47, 49] with two case-control studies ^[34, 39] and a
226 single randomised control study.^[48]

227

228 **3.3 Quality assessment**

229 A standardised rigorous quality assessment of the final selection of studies was
230 conducted jointly by both AG and CGC, summarised in table V.

231

232 Many of the studies included were deemed to be of poor to moderate quality. They
233 were found to be lacking in key areas such as: research design (most notably lack of
234 randomisation and use of a control group), description of theoretical principles that
235 underpin the choice of both educational intervention and assessment. The studies
236 were quality assessed using a standardised nineteen-point scale. The scores ranged
237 from 26% to 79% (mean: 61%, mode: 63%, median 63%, s.d. 13%).

238

239 While all studies provided a broad and selective description of the literature, none
240 demonstrated a systematic approach in appraising the evidence-base. Thirteen of
241 the 18 provided a clearly defined and well-described objective to the study.<sup>[5, 33, 35, 37-
242 40, 43-45, 47-49]</sup> In terms of research design, all studies adopted an appropriate study
243 design to answer the given research questions. Six studies explicitly stated the study
244 design within the published manuscript;^[34, 39, 43, 44, 48, 49] the remaining 12, failed to do
245 so. Two studies utilised a control group, with both implementing a randomisation
246 process for cohort allocation.^[34, 39] Eight of the included studies provide details on the

247 learner characteristics.^[5, 34, 39, 40, 43, 47-49] While the educational intervention was
248 described in all 18 studies, only ten described it in appropriate detail as to facilitate
249 replication.^[5, 34-36, 39, 40, 43, 47-49] Of the 18 studies, six studies provide details relating to
250 the tools and resources required to deliver the educational intervention in enough
251 detail as to facilitate replication.^[33, 34, 36, 47-49] 16 studies fail to describe any
252 theoretical models or conceptual frameworks underpinning the choice of educational
253 intervention, with the remaining two studies providing a limited description.^[5, 40] 16
254 studies provide a clear description of the process and outcome the assessment, with
255 the remaining two providing a limited description.^[42, 44] Eleven studies fail to provide
256 any discussion on theoretical models or conceptual frameworks underpinning the
257 specific choice of assessment, ^[33, 34, 36-38, 41, 42, 44, 45, 47, 48] with a further five providing
258 a limited description.^[5, 35, 39, 46, 49] Of the 18 studies, the educational context of the
259 assessment was clearly described in two of them,^[43, 46] with 14 studies failing to
260 provide any detail in this area.^[34-40, 42, 44, 45, 47-49] Eleven studies provided clear and in-
261 depth information on the materials required to facilitate replication of the assessment
262 process.^[5, 34, 35, 38-41, 43, 46, 47, 49] The limitations of the research conducted is clearly
263 described in four studies,^[35, 37, 40, 46] with three studies failing to recognise any
264 limitations in the research methodology.^[33, 34, 42] The outcomes of all 18 studies were
265 the modification of knowledge and skill, sitting at Kirkpatrick's level 2b.^[26]

266

267 **3.4 Educational intervention**

268 The emphasis on simulation within the education interventions varied widely
269 amongst the included studies. The intensity of education varied from an isolated 30–
270 60-minute session to performing 72 simulations over the course of months.^[34, 45] A
271 range of simulators were used, including the Mentice VIST simulator (n = 9) and the

272 Simbionix Angio Mentor simulator (n = 7). In most studies, simulation was the main
273 tool of intervention (n = 16), with only four studies incorporating other educational
274 methods, such as didactic teaching, computer-based training and tabletop procedure
275 demonstrations.^[33, 43, 47, 49] The included studies in this review simulated different
276 endovascular procedures as part of the simulation training interventions. The
277 endovascular procedures simulated include: carotid artery stenosis stenting, renal
278 artery angiography and angioplasty, thoracic endovascular aortic repair, IVC filter
279 placement, and infra-renal EVAR. Only four studies directly report utilisation of
280 expert tutor feedback and guidance during the educational components of the
281 programmes (excluding the assessment stages).^[5, 36, 41, 43] The remainder utilised
282 repetition and simulator-reported outcomes to guide learning, rather than expert
283 mentoring supporting the use of the simulator.

284

285 **3.5 Assessment of educational intervention**

286 All 18 studies utilised simulator-reported outcomes as a tool to monitor response to
287 the interventions.^[5, 33-49] Common outcomes include total procedure time, total
288 volume of contrast used, fluoroscopy time and the number of catheters required. The
289 more advanced simulators reported variables such as percent of residual stenosis,
290 placement accuracy, error frequency and catheter movements. All studies utilised
291 the first or second, and last simulation to evaluate performance. Several studies, in
292 addition to the simulator-reported metrics, used instructor evaluation to monitor
293 participant technical ability improvement.^[35, 36, 49] For example, Dayal *et al*/ scored
294 participants out of five for catheter manipulation technique, guidewire manipulation
295 technique, catheter exchange technique and monorail technique.^[36] Seven studies

296 also opted for subjective performance assessment by an expert instructor using
297 Likert-scale assessment tools.^[5, 35, 40, 42, 43, 46, 49]

298

299 **3.6 Learning outcomes**

300 The most reported objective measures were total procedure time (18 studies)^[5, 33-49],
301 total fluoroscopy time (16 studies)^[33-40, 42-49] and total volume of contrast used (13
302 studies)^[33-41, 43, 46-49].

303

304 In all the 18 included studies with the aid of the varying educational interventions, a
305 significant improvement was noted in total procedure time with p-values ranging from
306 0.001 to 0.05 signifying the degree of significance.^[5, 33-49]

307

308 Total fluoroscopy time was measured in 16 of the included studies out of which
309 significant improvements were found in 12 studies with p-values ranging from 0.005
310 to 0.05 signifying the degree of significance.^[33, 35-37, 39, 40, 43-47, 49] The four studies
311 which showed a lack of significant difference in fluoroscopy time did not share any
312 overlap within the educational intervention they implemented.^[34, 38, 42, 48] The number
313 of participants within these studies ranged from 5 to 29 and the degree of exposure
314 to the simulator ranged from a single 30–60-minute protracted sessions through to
315 20 repetitions of 3 different procedures.

316

317 Total contrast volume was measured in thirteen of the included 18 studies.^{[33-41, 43, 46-}

318 ^{48]} Six studies demonstrated a significant reduction in volume of contrast used

319 throughout the simulation with p-values ranging from 0.001 to 0.05 signifying the
320 degree of significance.^[33, 36, 38-41, 49] The seven studies which showed a lack of
321 significant difference in volume of contrast used varying educational interventions
322 that ranged from a single 30–60-minute protracted sessions through to completing
323 an eight-week course.^[34, 35, 37, 43, 46-48] The number of participants within these studies
324 ranged from 12 to 41 and there was no overlap in the educational intervention being
325 implemented.

326

327 Of the 18 studies, only four demonstrated significant improvements in the 3 most
328 reported measured outcomes i.e. total procedure time, total contrast volume and
329 fluoroscopy time.^[33, 36, 39, 40] They were all relatively small studies with participant
330 count ranging from 9 to 21 participants. There was no heterogeneity in the choice of
331 educational intervention each with a unique approach ranging from two-hour
332 personalised tuition through to a two-week longitudinal course. The experience of the
333 participants greatly varied which included some medical students through to vascular
334 surgeons with significant prior experience. Of these four studies, two utilised the
335 VIST simulator whilst the other two used the SimSuite simulator and the Angio
336 Mentor Dual-Sim simulator. All four studies conclude that more junior-level
337 participants stand to make the most significant improvements in all three metrics.

338 4 Discussion

339 Simulation within vascular and endovascular surgery is constantly evolving field.
340 Advancements in technology are increasingly being incorporated into training
341 programs. Simulators, augmented reality, mixed reality, and artificial intelligence
342 algorithms are becoming more widely used within educational interventions in
343 vascular surgery to provide tailored training programs. These technologies especially
344 ones utilising mixed reality have the potential to be deployed in operating rooms to
345 monitor the surgeon's movements, ergonomics to better assess, monitor and
346 improve surgical skills and learning curves.

347

348 This systematic review focussed on examining the role of high-fidelity simulation in
349 the acquisition of endovascular surgical skills by looking at both objective and
350 subjective performance metrics.

351

352 Whilst there was significant heterogeneity in the methodology of the included studies
353 regarding the simulation programs as well as endovascular procedures used, they all
354 demonstrated significant improvements in simulator procedure time following the use
355 of a simulator. Twelve studies demonstrated significant improvements in fluoroscopy
356 time.^[33, 35-37, 39, 40, 43-47, 49] Six studies demonstrated significant improvements in the
357 total volume of contrast used.^[33, 36, 38-41] Only four studies demonstrated significant
358 improvements in all three of the aforementioned parameters.^[33, 36, 39, 40]

359

360 There were significant disparities between the included studies in the nature and
361 design of the educational intervention used as the choice as well as the number of
362 participants included which ranged from 5 to 100 (mean: 21, mode: 20, median 15).

363

364 All studies recorded and reported objective outcomes, whereas subjective outcomes
365 were measured in only nine studies. There was marked variability in the outcomes
366 measured across the included studies.

367

368 With regards to assessment, nine studies utilised a variety of subjective assessment
369 scales for measuring trainee performance. An overwhelming majority of studies used
370 non-validated scoring systems which had inbuilt inherent biases from non-blinded
371 assessors. In all nine of these studies, significant improvements in subjective scores
372 were noted in the novice groups in keeping with the objective scores discussed
373 earlier. When assessing the more experienced expert operators, three studies found
374 no significant differences in the recorded subjective scores.^[35, 36, 46] This highlights
375 that junior trainees are most likely to make significant progress and improvements
376 when assessed subjectively by experts, in keeping with the objective measures
377 recorded using the simulator.

378

379 The studies we reviewed highlight the advantages of high-fidelity simulator-based
380 training in conjunction with clear objectives utilising an experienced tutor for
381 formative feedback. This is important in developing the psychomotor skills of aspiring
382 vascular surgeons and interventionists; especially in the more junior trainees when
383 combining the impacts of both objective and subjective scores.

384

385 Van Herzeele et al. explored whether innate perceptual, visuospatial, and
386 psychomotor aptitude (VSA) can predict the acquisition of technical skills needed for
387 endovascular surgery.^[40] They noted that the most dextrous students had the innate
388 ability to utilise the simulator to a greater extent on their first endovascular attempt
389 through gentler and steadier handling of the instruments as well as reduced
390 fluoroscopy times. Interestingly, they hypothesised that could be linked to a stronger
391 ability to recall visual images which was proved through a strong correlation between
392 Rey-Osterrieth Complex Figure (ROCF) test scores and fluoroscopy times. They
393 also noted that a ROCF scores were predictive of initial and end VR simulator
394 performance and may have a role in trainee selection as well as creating tailored
395 training programs and resources to meet the individual needs of the trainee.

396

397 Klass et al. noted that trainees would make considerable early improvements in their
398 performance with repeated attempts prior to plateauing.^[44] On analysis of operator
399 mistakes they noted that the frequency remained constant which was believed to
400 likely be due to the fact that trainees were learning in a safe environment which
401 allowed and encouraged participants to experiment and explore new techniques.

402

403 To move away from the traditional apprenticeship method of training, simulation-
404 based training can be used to shift to the modern competency-based style training
405 achieved through meeting established "lab benchmarks".^[39, 40, 50, 51] Several
406 recommendations have been proposed as to how simulation training can be best
407 utilised. Hsu et al. have recommended that training programs should consist of a

408 combination of both didactic and patient-based simulation teaching by an
409 experienced proctor.^[34] Aggarwal et al. recommended a graded approach as part of
410 a structured curriculum mixed with didactic learning aiming for competency-based
411 training.^[38] Kendrick et al. postulated that performance gains could be further
412 maximised through the use of simulation when targeted specifically towards
413 procedures in which adequate trainee exposure is difficult or problematic.^[46]
414 Mazzaccaro et al. stated that it is beneficial to simulate harder cases for both
415 trainees and experts to practice, however; they noted that simulation of difficult
416 cases lacked the same improvements in the learning curve compared to the easier
417 simulations.^[41]

418

419 There were multiple limitations in the studies included in this systematic review that
420 we have identified. Only a small number explicitly stated their study design.
421 Furthermore, only two of the included studies were randomised studies. A limited
422 number of objective simulator metrics were recorded which also varied between
423 different studies. Procedure time was the only parameter recorded in all studies.
424 Other parameters such as total contrast volume and total fluoroscopy time were
425 recorded in most of the studies. Kim et al focused only on one aspect of the
426 procedure (stent placement) rather than the entire procedure.^[45] Several earlier
427 studies have commented on lack of objective metrics being a limiting factor. This
428 appears to have been rectified in the more recent studies which utilised newer
429 models of the simulators. Most of the included studies had a small sample size with
430 only 4 studies having more than 20 participants. Furthermore, there was significant
431 heterogeneity amongst the participants' experience. The study by Lee et al was the
432 only one to utilise a validated global assessment scale.^[43] Stand-alone subjective

433 assessment was susceptible to bias from non-blinded assessors or self-
434 assessments. In combination with objective simulator metrics, it was deemed as a
435 reliable measure of progress.

436

437 The studies we reviewed demonstrated that use of a simulator had led to
438 improvements in both objective and subjective metrics; most notably in novice
439 trainees. However, there were significant variations in the educational interventions
440 applied by all of the studies we reviewed with regards to their structure and duration
441 of time spent on the simulation. In light of this, additional confounding variables that
442 may explain these improvements were not identified nor limited; such as: repeating
443 the same simulation scenario which gives rise to the concept of “negative training”,
444 the varying degrees of mentorship within the different interventions, prolonged time
445 interval between attempts which allows for real-life experience gained in the interim
446 to impact performance.

447

448 One of the challenges of incorporating simulation-based training is the difficulty in
449 establishing proficiency in a procedure or simulation scenario. A recent study by
450 Moglia et al. described a novel protocol for defining proficiency in three simulated
451 cases by analysing the VR simulator metrics of expert surgeons; using this as a first
452 step towards a creating a standardised competency-based curriculum on
453 fundamental endovascular skills.^[52] In 2016, Maertens et al. developed and validated
454 a structured, stepwise, proficiency-based endovascular program to train cognitive,
455 technical, and human factor skills.^[53] The group successfully demonstrated the

456 efficacy of this proficiency-based approach, but highlighted significant hurdles to its
457 integration within daily practice.^[54]

458

459 Some of the studies reported limitations with the simulators used. Older models
460 lacked realistic haptics as well as suffered with both software and hardware
461 malfunctions. They also lacked the ability to import patient specific data/CT imaging;
462 which is now possible with newer models. Additionally, simulators fail to assess finer
463 technical aspects such as economy of movement or damage to surrounding tissue
464 which necessitates the presence of an experienced mentor at hand to give
465 constructive feedback. Moreover, simulators omit several key procedural steps such
466 as accessing the desired entry point (which could also be simulated using
467 ultrasound-guided puncture) and vessels as well as the inability to simulate both
468 expected and unexpected complications encountered. Simulations are also limited
469 by their inability to fully mimic reality with all the other environmental factors and
470 pressures typically encountered in the operating theatre. This issue was highlighted
471 by Bakhsh et al during their prospective study, during which they identified
472 measurable increase in stress amongst surgeons during high-fidelity endovascular
473 simulation with impact on performance. They also concluded that there is a role for
474 high-fidelity team simulation in improving non-technical skill, reducing intraoperative
475 stress, and reducing errors.^[55] Several studies noted that simulator performance and
476 metrics lacked the ability to discern subtle differences between levels of
477 skills/experience.

478

479 Simulator performance alone does not model the true success of interventional
480 procedure nor do time measures indicate proficiency in a specific procedure; which
481 are seen as secondary measures. A better primary measure of assessing true
482 success would be: the quality of the diagnostic images, the clinical outcome of the
483 therapeutic intervention, and the experience of the patient.

484

485 Establishing and maintaining a simulation facility is very costly at present due to the
486 nature of the specialist simulators and personnel skillset needed. The costs have
487 been estimated to range from £12,000 to £185,000 (14, 24, 30). As a result, they are
488 only available in select few locations. However, it has been suggested that training
489 using a simulation-based curriculum can be less expensive than training within a
490 hybrid angiosuite.^[56]

491

492 This review sought to include all studies utilising endovascular immersive extended-
493 reality simulators such as virtual, augmented, and mixed reality simulators. However,
494 only studies which used virtual reality simulators matched our inclusion criteria.

495 Consequently, we were unable to assess the role of the other types of simulators.

496 However, the field of immersive extended-reality simulators is rapidly expanding
497 showing plenty of promise for further enhancing the fidelity of simulation for
498 endovascular surgeons.

499

500 Further research is needed to establish the duration of performance gains via the
501 simulator as well as extent of transferability of skills acquired into performance within
502 the operating theatre. Furthermore, additional research is needed to determine the

503 link between psychomotor, visuospatial abilities and simulator performance as well
504 as the optimum amount of time and routine that should be spent on the simulator
505 using long term longitudinal follow up.

506

507 **5 Conclusion**

508 The use of high-fidelity simulation leads to improvements in simulator performance
509 over time. Junior trainees are best suited for this style of training where they stand to
510 make the greatest strides in their development. However, high-quality randomised
511 control trials are needed to establish the clinical benefits of simulation training,
512 sustainability of improvements, transferability of skills and its cost-effectiveness.

513

514 **6 Funding**

515 This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public,
516 commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

517

518 **7 Declarations of interest**

519 None

520

521 **8 Acknowledgments**

522 The authors wish to thank Keith Nockels (academic clinical librarian at the University
523 of Leicester) for his help with performing the database searches and retrieving
524 articles.

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654

655 **Figure Legends**

656 **Figure 1:** PRISMA Flow Diagram - Summary of the study selection process

657

658 **Table I:** Types, advantages, and disadvantages of different technical skill simulators

659

660 **Table II:** Inclusion and exclusion criteria

661

662 **Table III:** Search syntaxes and search strategy

663

664 **Table IV:** The role of endovascular simulation in the acquisition of skill. A summary

665 of the included studies

666

667 **Table V:** Research quality assessment

Journal Pre-proof

668 **Appendices**669 **Appendix A: Abstract screening tool**

670 Article title:

671 1) Is the article an opinion piece, editorial letter, commentary, literature review or
672 systematic review?

673 Yes (reject) No or unknown (proceed to full-text assessment)

674

675 2) Does the study describe an endovascular technique or procedure not included
676 within the pre-specified list? (Table I)

677 Yes (reject) No or unknown (proceed to full-text assessment)

678

679 3) Does the study fail to utilise (high-fidelity) simulation as an educational
680 intervention for the endovascular techniques or procedures within the pre-
681 specified list? (Table I)

682 Yes (reject) No or unknown (proceed to full-text assessment)

683

684 4) Does the study fail to describe outcomes relating to technical or procedural
685 performance through endovascular simulation?

686 Yes (reject) No or unknown (proceed to full-text assessment)

687

688 5) Does the study fail to describe baseline and end-point measures relating to
689 technical or procedural performance through simulation?

690 Yes (reject) No or unknown (proceed to full-text assessment)

691

692 6) Does the study fail to include medical students, junior doctors (or equivalent)
693 or consultants (or equivalent)?

694 Yes (reject) No or unknown (proceed to full-text assessment)

695

696 7) Is an English translation of the article not available?

697 Yes (reject) No or unknown (proceed to full-text assessment)

698

699 **Outcome:**

700 Reject

Reason:

701 Proceed to full-text screening

Journal Pre-proof

702 **Appendix B: Full-text assessment tool**703 **Article title:**

704 1) Is the article an opinion piece, editorial letter, commentary, literature review or
705 systematic review?

706 Yes (reject) No (continue to next question)

707

708 2) Does the study describe an endovascular technique or procedure included
709 within the pre-specified list? (Table I)

710 Yes No (reject paper)

711

712 3) Does the study utilise (high-fidelity) simulation as an educational intervention
713 for the endovascular techniques or procedures within the pre-specified list?
714 (Table I)

715 Yes No (reject paper)

716

717 4) Does the study describe outcomes relating to technical or procedural
718 performance through endovascular simulation?

719 Yes No (reject paper)

720

721 5) Does the study describe baseline and end-point measures relating to
722 technical or procedural performance through simulation?

723 Yes No (reject paper)

724

725 6) Does the study include medical students, junior doctors (or equivalent) or
726 consultants (or equivalent)?

727 Yes No (reject paper)

728

729 **Outcome:**

730 Reject

Reason:

731 For inclusion in final review

Journal Pre-proof

732 **Appendix C: Quality assessment tool**

733 Article title:

734 Background and objectives

735 Has a review of the literature been described? (RMQ)

736 Yes No

737 Is there a clearly-defined and well-described objective to the study? (RMQ)

738 Yes No

739

740 Research design

741 Is the design appropriate to answer the research question? (RMQ)

742 Yes No

743 Is the study design explicitly reported? (RQ)

744 Yes No

745 Was a control group used? (RMQ)

746 Yes No

747 Was there any form of randomisation between groups? (RMQ)

748 Yes No

749 Were the learner characteristics reported? (RQ)

750 Yes No

751

752 Education intervention

753 Is the educational intervention clearly described? (RQ)

754 Clear description of the educational intervention that is sufficient to facilitate
755 replication

756 Some limited description that will not facilitate replication

757 No

758 Are the resources utilised clearly described? (RQ)

759 Clear description of the resources required to deliver the educational
760 intervention that is sufficient to facilitate replication

761 Some limited description of the resources required that is insufficient to
762 replicate

763 No

764

765 Is there a description of theoretical models or conceptual frameworks that underpin
766 the choice of education intervention? (RQ)

767 Clear and relevant description

768 Some limited discussion of underpinning, with minimal interpretation in the
769 context of the education intervention delivered

770 No

771

772 Assessment

773 Is there a description of the process and outcomes of the assessment? (RQ)

774 Clear description of the process and outcomes of the assessment

775 Some limited description that will not facilitate replication

776 No

777

778 Is there a description of theoretical models or conceptual frameworks that underpin
779 the choice of assessment? (RQ)

780 Clear and relevant description

781 Some limited discussion of underpinning, with minimal interpretation in the
782 context of the assessment choice

783 No

784

785 Is the educational context of the assessment provided? (RQ)

786 Clear description of the educational context

787 Some limited description of the educational context

788 No

789

790 Are there details of psychometrics and how they are applied to the assessment?

791 (RQ)

792 Clear description of relevant psychometrics and how they are applied to the
793 assessment

794 Some psychometric information, but not enough to fully inform for
795 dissemination

796 No

797

798 Is there provision of material to allow assessment replication? (RQ)

799 Clear description of the process and outcomes of the assessment

800 Some limited description that will not facilitate replication

801 No

802

803 Results and conclusions (RQ)

804 Do the outcomes match the objectives of the study?

805 Yes No

806

807

808 To what extent do the conclusions match the findings of the study? (score 1 – 5)

809 (RQ)

810 1 – No clear conclusions can be drawn. Not significant

811 2 – Results ambiguous, but there appears to be a trend.

812 3 – Conclusions can probably be based on the results.

813 4 – Results are clear and very likely to be true.

814 5 – Results are unequivocal.

815

816 Are the limitations of the study discussed appropriately? (RQ)

817 Clear and detailed discussion of the limitations and the implications of
818 these on the results and drawn conclusions819 Some discussion of the limitations of the study, but lacking in detail,
820 completeness or linkage to the results and drawn conclusions821 No

822 Are statistical tests used appropriately? (RMQ)

823 Yes No

824

825 Code the level of impact being studied: (RQ)

826 Level 1 - Participation

827 Level 2a - Modification of attitudes/perceptions

828 Level 2b - Modification of knowledge/skills

829 Level 3 - Behavioural change

830 Level 4a - Change in organizational practice

831 Level 4b - Benefits to patient / clients

Journal Pre-proof

832 **Appendix D: Data extraction tool**

833 Demographics and study design

834 Article title:

835 Authors:

836 Year of publication:

Country of publication:

837 Study type:

838 Participants:

839 Study aims:

840

841 Simulation intervention

842 Description of the educational intervention (including simulator used):

843 Specific endovascular procedure:

844

845 Assessment tool

846 Description on performance evaluation

847 Outcome measures:

848

849 Results and conclusions

850 Main results:

851 Conclusions:

Table I: Types, advantages, and disadvantages of different technical skill simulators

Simulation Type	Examples	Advantages	Disadvantages
Task Training Simulation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cannulation arm • Box trainers • Suture mats • Injection pads 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relatively cheap. • Easy to implement. • Suitable for low resource settings. • Suitable for early stages in clinical practise. • Allows for a technical skill to be broken down into the essential component steps or simulating an isolated skill in its own right 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Low fidelity • Does not allow for the replication of the full clinical encounter. • Requires additional equipment to create a more realistic experience. • Lack of objective feedback from simulator.
Animal/Cadaveric/Wet-Lab Simulation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Live or dissected animal tissue material • Human tissue/cadavers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides a high-fidelity experience including anatomical variations. • Allows for simulation of an entire procedure. • Compatible with imaging (ultrasound/fluoroscopy) during the simulation. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Finite limited resource. • Costly. • Single use. • Require specialist facilities with appropriate licensing and ethical consideration. • Infection risks. • Cannot simulate active bleeding
Virtual and augmented reality	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Computer based simulation models. • Minimally invasive/robotic surgery simulators. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High fidelity. • Wide range of procedural simulations available. • Detailed objective simulator feedback. • Easily accessible. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limited use of adjuvant imaging modalities • Cost associated with setting up and maintenance. • Lack of validated assessment protocols.

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limited support faculty required. • Haptic feedback. • Re-usable. • Wide range of simulation options ranging from specific skill through to full procedures • Allows for patient-specific practise by pre-loading with patient's CT/MRI. 	
Manikins	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Resuscitation models • Trauma models • Neonatal/paediatric models • Obstetric models • Ultrasound trainers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wide range of differing fidelity models available. • Ability to replicate physiological response. • Programmable. • Compatibility with ultrasound imaging. • Can be used as part of a hybrid simulation. • Detailed performance data collected. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limited suitability for simulating surgical procedures. • Not suitable for repeated use in invasive procedures without replacing damaged parts. • Cost associated with setting up and maintenance.

Table II: Inclusion and exclusion criteria

Criteria type	Inclusion criteria	Exclusion criteria
Study design	<p>Any study design that describes simulation as an education intervention focused on any of the following endovascular techniques / procedures</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • EVAR (Endovascular Aneurysm Repair) • TEVAR (Thoracic Endovascular Aortic Repair) • BEVAR (Branched Endovascular Aortic Repair) • FEVAR (Fenestrated Endovascular Aortic Repair) • chEVAR (chimney Endovascular Aortic Repair) • EVAS (Endovascular Aneurysm Sealing) • chEVAS (chimney Endovascular Aneurysm Sealing) • Covered Endovascular Reconstruction of Aortic Bifurcation (CERAB) • Peripheral angioplasty • Carotid artery stenting 	Opinion pieces, editorial letters, commentaries, literature review or systematic review which fails to describe simulation as an education intervention focused on any of the techniques / procedures described previously.
Intervention	Any study which utilises high-fidelity (virtual reality) simulation	Any study which fails to use (high-fidelity) simulation as

	as the education intervention for the above techniques / procedures.	the education intervention for the above techniques / procedures.
Outcome	Any study which describes baseline and end-point measures relating to technical or procedural performance through simulation in relation to the above endovascular techniques / procedures. Studies that describe outcomes at all levels of Kirkpatrick's adapted hierarchy are eligible.	Any study which fails to describe outcomes relating to technical or procedural performance through simulation in relation to the above endovascular techniques / procedures.
Participants	Any study which includes medical students, junior doctors (or equivalent) and consultants (or equivalent).	Any study which fails to include medical students, junior doctors (or equivalent) and consultants (or equivalent).
Language	Any country, any language, with translation if needed.	English translation is not available.

Table III: Search syntaxes and search strategy

Stage	Adjoining word	Search term	Field to search
1	AND	*ENDOVASCULAR ANEURYSM REPAIR/ OR *ENDOVASCULAR ANEURYSM SEALING/ OR ((Angioplasty NOT cardiac) OR "aortic aneurysm" OR "aortic dissection" OR BEVAR OR "Branched Endovascular Aortic Repair" OR "Carotid artery stent*" OR chEVAR OR "chimney Endovascular Aortic Repair" OR chEVAS OR "chimney Endovascular Aneurysm Sealing" OR "Covered Endovascular Reconstruction of Aortic Bifurcation" OR endovascular OR EVAR OR "Endovascular Aneurysm Repair" OR EVAS OR "Endovascular Aneurysm Sealing" OR FEVAR OR "Fenestrated Endovascular Aortic Repair" OR "peripheral angioplasty" OR "Peripheral vascular disease" OR PVD OR TEVAR OR "Thoracic Endovascular Aortic Repair" OR "Varicose veins")	Title
		("virtual reality" OR virtual-reality OR VR OR "task trainer*" OR dry-lab OR "dry lab" OR "computer assisted" OR "computer aided" OR simulat*)	Title

Table IV: The role of endovascular simulation in

Demographics and study design						Simulation intervention		Assessment tool		Main results summary
Author	Year	Location	Study type	Participants	Study aims	Educational intervention	Endovascular procedure	Performance evaluation	Outcome measures	
Vento et al. [39]	2018	Italy	Case control	n = 10 10 vascular surgery residents	To evaluate the effect of EVAR simulation in boosting the learning curve by quantifying the performance improvement through participation in a series of simulated EVAR procedures.	Participants in the 'training group' received three simulation sessions composed of 6 EVAR cases (over a two-week period). All participants completed 2 EVAR cases (1 simple and 1 complex) at the start and end of the study. The simulator used was the endovascular angio mentor dual slim simulator.	Not specified.	The quantitative evaluation was provided by simulator metrics. The qualitative evaluation was an adapted Likert-scale.	Total procedural time Total fluoroscopy time Time for contralateral gate cannulation Contrast medium volume	Significant improvements in total procedure time, fluoroscopy time and total contrast volume use.
Gosling et al. [35]	2017	USA	Observational	n = 12 4 students 4 junior surgery residents (postgraduate year 1 - 3) 4 senior surgery residents (postgraduate year 4 - 7)	To determine how simulating carotid stenting procedures affects objective performance measures in operators of different experience levels	Over a four-week period, participants completed four simulated carotid artery stenting scenarios. The simulator used was Angio Mentor Dual Sim.	Carotid artery stenosis stenting.	The VR simulator calculated metrics regarding performance at the end of each scenario. Qualitative assessments of operator proficiency were performed with a Likert scale, scored by trained investigators. This allowed for determination of improvement in performance as students progressed through the four scenarios, with the primary outcome measures comparing performance in the first and fourth iteration.	Total procedural time Cumulative fluoroscopy time Contrast agent volume used Likert-scale (subjective performance assessment)	Significant improvements in total procedure time, fluoroscopy time but no significant difference in total contrast volume use.
Kim et al. [45]	2016	USA	Observational	n = 6 3 junior surgery residents (no prior independent endovascular experience) 3 experienced EVAR surgeons	To assess the ability of operators to adopt new skills.	Each participant performed variations of 18 simulations, with each case being classified based on the degree of infrarenal angulation (0 - 20°, 21 - 40° and 41 - 66°). In total, each participant performed 72 simulated EVARs (variations of main body access, type of stent graft system). The simulator used was the Angio Mentor Dual Slim.	Endovascular aneurysm repair (EVAR)	The simulation device provided information on clinical metrics following each clinical case. The actual seal zone coverage by the deployed stent graft was calculated mathematically. Comparison in performance between the first and last 10 cases allowed for determination of procedural improvement	Degree of proximal seal covered by the deployed stent graft Total procedure time Fluoroscopy time Ordinal ranking system used to grade the deployment trials as acceptable or unacceptable based on the distance of the proximal endograft to the lowest renal artery. (1 = optimal, 4 least optimal)	Significant improvements in total procedure time and fluoroscopy time.
Saratzis et al. [5]	2017	UK	Observational	n = 16 16 vascular surgical trainees	To assess the role of SBT using a high-fidelity VR simulator.	Participants performed an EVAR procedure, followed by four supervised SBT sessions (supervisor was a consultant surgeon or radiologist) over a period of three months, followed by performing the same EVAR procedure that was performed at baseline. The simulator used was the Angiommentor VR Simulator.	Non-ruptured infrarenal EVAR	The simulator automatically records a variety of parameters throughout the procedure. Response to training was quantified through comparison of pre-and-post intervention performance. A modified-Likert scale was used to assess trainee performance (by an independent investigator)	Time Amount of contrast medium used Contact of wires(s) and catheter(s) with vessel wall Presence of endoleak Modified Likert scale score	Significant improvements in total procedure time.
Kendrick et al. [46]	2015	USA	Observational	n = 12 4 students 4 junior surgery residents (postgraduate year 1 - 3) 4 senior surgery residents (postgraduate year 4 - 7)	To quantify trainee improvement through participation in a series of TEVAR-specific simulations.	Participants performed a TEVAR simulation case on four separate occasions with a minimum of five days between the sessions. The simulator used was the Angio Mentor Dual Slim.	Thoracic endovascular aortic repair (TEVAR)	The simulation device provided information on clinical metrics following each session. A Likert-scale qualitative analysis was used to evaluate participant proficiency during each simulation, performed by a qualified thoracic vascular surgeon with thoracic aortic experience. Change in performance between the first and last cases were analysed in conjunction with scoring from a Likert-scale qualitative scale, as adapted from Chaer et al.	Total procedural time Total fluoroscopy time Total contrast volume Likert-scale (subjective performance assessment)	Significant improvements in total procedure time, fluoroscopy time but no significant difference in total contrast volume use.

Mattos et al. [42]	2012	USA	Observational	n = 5 4 vascular surgery fellows 1 radiology resident	Describing the experience in venous endovascular simulation training for performance of diagnostic venography and inferior vena cava (IVC) filter placement.	Each participant performed 20 non-selective cavagrams, 20 selective bilateral renal vein venograms and 20 IVC filter placements. The simulator used was the VIST simulator.	Endovascular renal procedures (renal vein venograms, IVC filter placements and cavagrams).	Internal (simulator-based) and external (physician-developed) metrics were measured and obtained. Improvement in performance was determined through comparing metrics between procedure 1 and procedure 20.	Total procedure time Total fluoroscopy time IVC cavagrams Bilateral renal vein venography IVC filter placement Combined errors IVC filter movement Procedural checklist score (max 42) Global rating scale score (max 95)	Significant improvements in total procedure time but no significant difference in fluoroscopy time.
Mazzaccaro et al. [41]	2012	Italy	Observational	n = 100 50 novice vascular surgery and radiology trainees 50 experienced interventional vascular surgeons and interventional radiologists	To define the use of virtual reality for carotid artery stenosis training in type I and type III aortic arches for novice operators.	Each participants trained on a simulator for two hours whilst receiving feedback about errors and technical skill from experienced tutors. The participants performed a procedure in a right bifurcation carotid stenosis in a type I aortic arch and a right internal carotid stenosis in a type III aortic arch, both before-and-after the learning. The simulator used was the Procedicus VIST system.	Carotid artery stenosis.	Data of performance were collected using a report of some simulator-derived metrics. Improvement in performance was obtained through comparison between pre-and-post intervention scores.	17 metrics including total procedural time, contrast amount, time of scope, time to catheterisation, stent placement accuracy, % of residual stenosis after stenting, % of lesion covered with stent, balloon placement accuracy, % of residual stenosis after ballooning, % of lesions covered with balloon, catheter movements against vessel wall, catheter movements without guidewire, catheter movements near lesion, EPD movements during deployment and EDP movements after deployment	Significant improvements in total procedure time and total contrast volume use.
Coates et al. [37]	2010	UK	Observational	n = 14 14 1st year radiology trainees	To evaluate whether training on a simulated device leads to improved performance.	Participants completed three procedures, followed by a two-hour period of structured training on the simulator, followed by 1 hour of operator-led practice on the device. The participants then performed the same three endovascular procedures.	Flush aortography Selective renal angiography Angioplasty on ipsilateral iliac artery stenosis	Simulator-generated data allowed for comparison between pre-and-post intervention performance. Subjective number of errors made and subjective overall performance.	Total procedural time Total fluoroscopy time Total amount of contrast used Mean number of errors made Subjective overall performance	Significant improvements in total procedure time, fluoroscopy time but no significant difference in total contrast volume use.
Lee et al. [43]	2009	USA	Observational	n = 41 23 first year medical students 15 second year medical students 3 'other' students	To assess the ability of a simulation-based curriculum to improve the technical performance of pre-clinical medical students.	Each participant performed a renal stent procedure (pre-test). The 8-week curriculum consisted of didactic teaching, lectures, and a weekly 90-minute mentored simulator session (carotid, renal, iliac and superficial femoral artery interventions). Course concluded with a final renal stent procedure on the simulator (post-test). The simulator used was the Simbionix Angiomentor.	Renal artery stenosis stenting	Objective procedural measures were determined and reported by the simulator, and subjective performance was graded by severe expert observers using a structured global assessment scale. Improvement in technical skill was measured through the comparison of pre-and-post-intervention performance.	Total procedure time Time to the diagnostic angiogram Time to stent deployment Percent residual stenosis Percent of lesion covered by stent Placement accuracy Fluoroscopy time Volume of contrast injected Activated clotting time Eight-question global assessment score (Likert-scale).	Significant improvements in total procedure time, fluoroscopy time but no significant difference in total contrast volume use.
Van Herzele et al. [40]	2010	UK	Observational	n = 20 10 third year medical students 10 fourth year medical students	To identify if medical students could acquire the appropriate endovascular skills to perform a renal artery angioplasty and stent procedure on a VR simulator.	Participants treated an identical left-sided nonostial renal artery lesion ten times. An experienced interventionalist rated the performance at the initial and final sessions using generic and procedure-specific rating scales. The simulator used was the VIST.	Non-ostial renal artery lesion	The simulator automatically provides a procedure report for each session. Improvement in performance was ascertained through comparing outcomes in the first iteration to outcomes in the tenth iteration. Additionally, an experienced endovascular interventionalist (external assessment) used two rating scales to assess the candidates.	Procedure time Contrast volume Fluoroscopy time Qualitative metrics	Significant improvements in total procedure time, fluoroscopy time, total contrast volume use and observer scores.
Klass et al. [44]	2008	UK	Observational	n = 12 12 radiology registrars	To characterise the progress of trainees using an interventional simulator trainer	Each participant performed five left renal artery angioplasty over the course of six months. The VIST simulator was used.	Left renal artery angioplasty	The simulation device provided information of clinical metrics following each trial. Progression in metrics over the course of the programme was evaluated. Number of mistakes were recorded.	Total procedure time Fluoroscopy times Number of mistakes.	Significant improvements in total procedure time and fluoroscopy time.

Van Herzele et al. [49]	2008	UK	Observational	n = 11 11 experienced interventionists 4 interventional cardiologists 4 interventional radiologists 2 neuroradiologists 1 vascular surgeon	To objectively assess psychomotor skills acquisition of experienced interventionalists attending a two-day CAS course, using a VR simulator.	Two-day course using didactic sessions, case reviews, supervised VR simulation and live-cases.	Carotid artery stenting	The quantitative evaluation was provided by simulator metrics. Clinical errors were also measured by blinded video assessment.	Procedure time Contrast volume Fluoroscopic time Delivery-deployment time Error scores Carotid artery spasm Placement accuracy Residual stenosis Lesion coverage	Significant improvements in total procedure time, fluoroscopy time, delivery-deployment time, spasm of internal carotid artery and median number of errors.
Dawson et al. [33]	2007	USA	Observational	n = 9 Vascular surgery residents (fellow) in the first year of vascular speciality training.	To evaluate trainees' technical performance before-and-after individualised training with endovascular simulation.	Two-day endovascular skills programme incorporating high-fidelity endovascular procedure simulation, didactic instruction, computer-based training, and tabletop procedure demonstrations. Within the programme, there was eight hours of simulation-based training. The simulator used was SimSuite.	Iliac angioplasty / stenting.	Performance metrics were automatically measured by the simulator. Change in performance on two index cases performed at the beginning and end of the educational intervention allowed for determination of improvement.	Procedure time Fluoroscopy time Contrast used No of balloon catheters used Number of stents implanted Number of wired used	Significant improvements in total procedure time, fluoroscopy time and total contrast volume use.
Neequaye et al. [48]	2007	UK	RCT	n = 20 20 novice surgical trainees 10 randomised to iliac group 10 randomised to renal group	To determine the nature of skills acquisition on the renal and iliac modules of a commercially-available VR simulator.	Participants completed eight sessions on a VR iliac/renal training module and then crossed over to perform two further VR cases of the other procedure.	Iliac stenting / renal stenting	The quantitative evaluation was provided by simulator metrics.	Procedure time Contrast volume Fluoroscopic time Placement accuracy Residual stenosis Lesion coverage Stent:vessel ratio Maximum stent deployment pressure	Significant improvements in total procedure time but no significant difference in fluoroscopy time and total contrast volume use.
Aggarwal et al. [38]	2006	UK	Observational	n = 20 12 experienced in endovascular procedures (performed > 50 procedures) 8 inexperienced in endovascular procedures (performed < 10 procedures)	To assess the role of a virtual reality simulator for interventional vascular procedures.	Over a two-day period, participants completed six repetitions of the same module (non-ostial left renal artery balloon angioplasty and stent procedure). The simulator used was the VIST simulator.	Non-ostial left renal artery angioplasty and stent procedures.	The VR simulator calculated metrics regarding performance at the end of each repetition. This allowed for determination of improvement in performance as students progressed through the six repetitions, with the primary outcome measures comparing performance after the second and sixth iteration.	Total procedural time Total amount of contrast used Fluoroscopy time	Significant improvements in total procedure time and total contrast use but no significant difference in fluoroscopy time.
Patel et al. [47]	2006	USA	Observational	n = 20 20 interventional cardiologists	To demonstrate the utility of the VIST simulator as a measuring tool for improvement in performance and a reduction in procedural errors on repeat testing during simulated carotid angiography.	An instructional course on carotid angiography and then performed five serial simulated carotid angiograms on the VIST simulator.	Carotid angiogram	The quantitative evaluation was provided by simulator metrics.	Procedure time Fluoroscopy time Contrast volume Composite catheter handling errors	Significant improvements in total procedure time and fluoroscopy time but no significant difference in total contrast volume use.
Dayal et al. [36]	2004	USA	Observational	n = 21 16 general surgery residents (performed < 5 percutaneous angiographic procedures) 5 vascular surgeons (> 300 peripheral interventions)	To evaluate the effectiveness of an endovascular simulator for instruction of novice and experienced interventionalists.	Minimum of 2 hours of individualised catheter-based skill training by an expert interventionalist, with the VIST simulator.	Carotid artery stenosis stenting.	Checklist of procedural steps was completed by an experienced interventionalist during the pre-intervention and post-intervention CAS case. Performance metrics were provided by the simulator. Instructor evaluation of participant technical ability in 4 areas.	Procedure time Fluoroscopy time Contrast used Procedural checklist score Subjective technical skills (catheter manipulation, guide wire manipulation, catheter exchange and monorail technique)	Significant improvements in total procedure time, fluoroscopy time, total contrast volume use, procedure score, catheter and guidewire manipulation.

Hsu et al. [34]	2004	USA	Case control	<p>n = 29 16 untrained in endovascular procedures (performed or assisted in < 50 procedures) 13 trained in endovascular procedures (performed or assisted in > 50 procedures)</p>	<p>To investigate the utility and validity of a simulator in assessment and teaching of endovascular skills.</p>	<p>Practice consisted of a 30-minute to 60-minute proctored session, formally repeating the 8 steps within carotid artery stenting or experimenting with the simulator. The simulator used was the VIST simulator.</p>	<p>Carotid artery stenosis stenting.</p>	<p>The simulator generated a report for each session, relating to important clinical metrics.</p> <p>Change in performance was determined through comparing metrics between the pre-test and post-test. Further analysis between the untrained versus advanced group and practice versus no practice group was performed.</p>	<p>Pass (all 8 steps completed within a 60-minute period) or fail</p> <p>Total time Total contrast material used Total fluoroscopy time Number of tools inserted</p>	<p>Significant improvements in total procedure time but no significant difference in fluoroscopy time and total contrast volume use.</p>
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Figure 1: PRISMA Flow Diagram - Summary of the study selection process