

Received: 2019.05.31
Accepted: 2019.08.06
Published: 2019.11.23

The Anatomical Variation of the Scapular Spine in A Chinese Population

Authors' Contribution:

Study Design A
Data Collection B
Statistical Analysis C
Data Interpretation D
Manuscript Preparation E
Literature Search F
Funds Collection G

A 1 **Yimu Lin***
BC 2,3 **Kaifeng Gan***
ABC 4,5,6 **Lei Zhang**
DEF 7 **Hongrui Wei**
F 4 **Xin Zhou**
F 7 **Hengshu Chen**

1 Department of Orthopedics, The Second Affiliated Hospital and Yuying Children's Hospital of Wenzhou Medical University, Wenzhou, Zhejiang, P.R. China
2 Department of Orthopaedics, Ningbo Medical Center Lihuili Hospital, Ningbo, Zhejiang, P.R. China
3 Medical School of Ningbo University, Ningbo, Zhejiang, P.R. China
4 Department of Orthopedics, Affiliated Traditional Chinese Medicine Hospital of Southwest Medical University, Luzhou, Sichuan, P.R. China
5 Academician Workstation in Luzhou, Sichuan, P.R. China
6 National Key Discipline of Human Anatomy, School of Basic Medical Sciences, Southern Medical University, Guangzhou, Guangdong, P.R. China
7 School of Clinical Medicine, Southwest Medical University, Luzhou, Sichuan, P.R. China

* Yimu Lin and Kaifeng Gan contributed equally to this work

Corresponding Author: Lei Zhang, e-mail: zhanglei870722@126.com

Source of support: This work was supported by Academician Workstation Construction Project of Luzhou, Sichuan Province, China (No. 20180101) and Science and Technology Innovation Seeding Cultivation Project of Luzhou, Sichuan Province (No. 2018-RCM-72)

Background: The occurrence of fractures and risks following reverse total shoulder arthroplasty (rTSA) is common due to the variation of scapular spine (SS). Therefore, the consideration of the variable osteological features of SS prior to surgery may prove to be significant for the implementation of rTSA. This study aimed to propose a classification of SS through particular and quantitative parameters.





Material/Methods: In total, 354 intact dry scapulae were geometrical measured and classified on account of anatomical characteristics and the shapes of SS.

Results: Type I SS was found, and this was the most frequency was type (27.97%). The least common type was type II. The type of SS had a direct association with bone stock and bone mineral density. Type II represented an association with a much thinner spine and restricted cortical and cancellous bone; types II and V were also associated with a crooked SS, which had a more complex morphology.

Conclusions: This study offered a comprehensive classification of SS in the Chinese population. On the whole, this study indicates that knowledge of the morphological variations of SS can prompt the diagnosis of scapular fractures and can promote more successful rTSA procedures, and the relative clinical trial is necessary to support it.

MeSH Keywords: **Anatomic Landmarks • Classification • Fractures, Bone • Scapula**

Full-text PDF: <https://www.medscimonit.com/abstract/index/idArt/917870>

 3034  4  3  81



Background

Crossing obliquely the medial four-fifths of the scapula at its upper part, the scapular spine (SS) is a salient plate of bone. Reverse total shoulder arthroplasty (rTSA) is known to decrease pain, improve the range of motion and increase strength [1]. Therefore, it is frequently used in the disposition of shoulder fractures and other vulnera. However, for patients undergoing this procedure, it is considered normal that they experience pain several months after surgery [2,3]. Although frequent complications of stress fractures occurring in the acromion [4–10], SS [11–16], clavicle [17] and coracoid [1] following rTSA are not very common, the more usual subset of the aforementioned stress fractures occur in the SS and acromion in 3.1% to 10% [4–10,13,14,16] of patients following rTSA. A number of complications relating to SS are a result of a lack of knowledge of its anatomically morphological features. A single traumatic event and the tip of the metaglene screw are more likely to be the reason of SS fractures, which result in an increased risk of revision and dislocation and inferior clinical outcomes [4,13,18]. Acute pain can also occur without trauma, and the most common etiology during the initial postoperative years is a fracture of the SS [4,7,9,19,20]. Therefore, it is necessary to figure out the variations of SS, so as to decrease intraoperative risks and postoperative complications.

Instability is normally observed during the first year following rTSA, although late instability can be observed after several years as a result of polyethylene wear and the stretching of soft tissues [20–28]. Moreover, recurrent dislocations or subluxations have also been reported [7,22,23,25,29]. Surgical fixation offers better postoperative pulmonary function, more rapid verticalization and mobilization, and a better quality of life [30–34]. Thus, the implant is significant in order to improve stabilization and for better surgical fixation. However, there is an increasing hardware removal rate reaching 7.1% without anatomical knowledge due to implant-related discomfort and failure [35,36]. Understanding different types of SS can decrease implant-related discomfort and failure ratios. Currently, 3-dimensional (3D) printing techniques are applied in a number of areas, such as research, implants and surgical planning [37]. Guarino et al. [34] found that 3D printing models could provide significant benefits in the areas of preoperative planning, intra-surgical navigation, and in the reduction of the operating time. In addition, knowing the variable morphology of SS can have an instructive effect on 3D printing implant during shoulder surgery. The classification of SS has instructional significance to 3D printing, which can lead to better accuracy for screw placement and may guide the customization of the shape of implant. Thus, the anatomical information about the variation of SS presented in this study may be important and useful.

A number of surgical management techniques have included SS [38–40]. Furthermore, the ease of collecting, minimal donor site morbidity and the credible blood supply to this bone may be the reason of SS being applied to a number of areas on the body [41–50]. The quantification of the anatomical information about this subject should be presented in detail in order to reduce the operative time and ensure better perceptions. The significance of the SS including quantitative and morphological variations of the SS seems to have been neglected so far [51–55]. Nevertheless, the detailed information of the SS was presented in present study. SSSs were sorted into 6 types according to the osteological variations in the Chinese population and the thickness of the SS measured to examine the bone quality. This information can help surgeons to have a better and more extensive understanding of the complex anatomy of the SS. In this manner, less intra-operative blood loss, as well as less intra-operative radiation exposure can be achieved. In addition, a specific geometrical measurement method was proposed, which provides an auxiliary for surgical procedures.

Material and Methods

Ethics statement

Ethics approval was obtained from the Medical Ethics Committee of the School of Basic Medical Sciences, Southwest Medical University (SWMCTCM2017-0801). The related SS data and other data used to support the findings of this study are restricted by the Medical Ethics Committee of School of Basic Medical Sciences, Southwest Medical University.

Samples

A total of 354 intact dry Chinese scapulae were collected from the School of Basic Medical Sciences, Southwest Medical University, Luzhou, China. Inclusion criteria for the participation in this study were aged from 20 to 60 years old and belonged to the Chinese Han nationality. The scapulae with the following subjects was ruled out: 1) undeveloped complete scapulae from the patient that under 20 years old and the osteoporosis scapulae from the patient that over 60 years old; 2) congenital shoulder malformation; 3) have had a fracture. These included 193 right and 161 left scapulae; the age and gender of the donors were unknown.

Sample measurements

All scapulae were observed and measured. To avoid inter-observer variations, each measurement was carefully observed by the same investigator, who performed the categorization. The investigator was a researcher who work at



Figure 1. Different types of scapular spine in specimens. (A) Type I, tenuous-shape. (B) Type II, slender rod-shape. (C) Type III, thick shape. (D) Type IV, large fusiform-shape. (E) Type V, small fusiform-shape. (F) Type VI, S-shape.

the Department of Human Anatomy of Southwest Medical University of China for more than 5 years. The SS was classified based on its morphological features and size (shown in Figures 1, 2). Measurements were carried out using a Vernier caliper (SOMET™CN-25 1234, accurate to 0.1 mm) and recorded in millimeters.

Morphometric measurements

During the measurements, we selected 9 bony landmarks, which were related to areas of interest for scapula immobilization and reproducibility of the measurement among specimens. The parameters were measured using tpsDig and are shown in Figure 3.

AE (superior border of SS): straight-line distance measured from the medial edge of the scapula in which it encounters with the SS to the lateral edge of the acromion;
BC (lateral border of SS, spinoglenoid notch): height of the SS at the lateral edge
AC (base border of SS): straight-line distance measured from the medial edge of the scapula in which it encounters with the SS to the edge of the spinoglenoid notch;
AB: straight-line distance measured from the medial edge of the scapula in which it encounters with the SS to the point in which BC encounters with the spine;
AD: straight-line distance measured from the medial edge of the scapula in which it encounters with the SS to the corner of the acromion; FG and HI: height of the spine through point G and I; J, K, L are the midpoints of FG, HI, and BC, respectively.

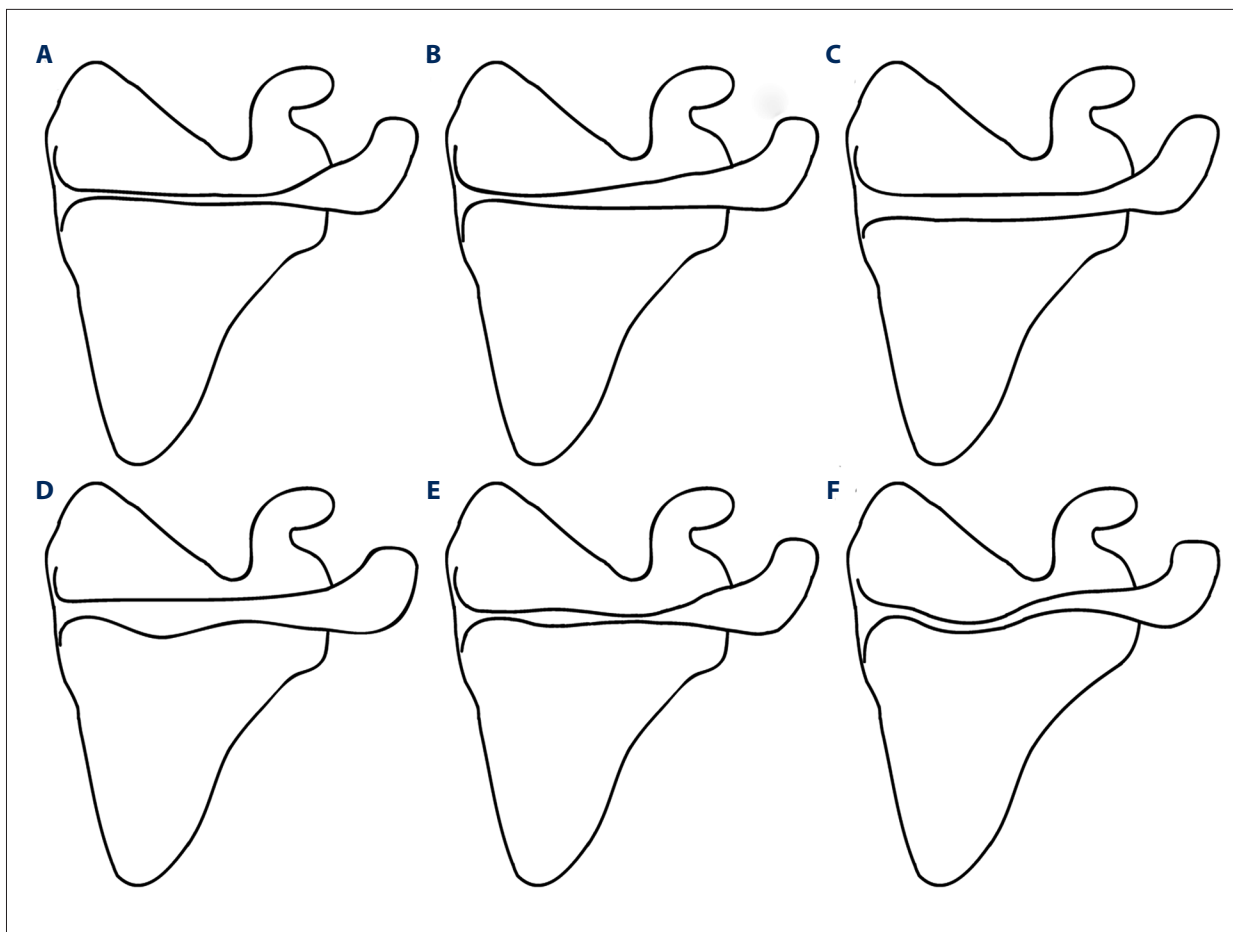


Figure 2. Sketches of different types of scapular spine shown in the diagram. (A) Type I, tenuous-shape. (B) Type II, slender rod-shape. (C) Type III, thick shape. (D) Type IV, large fusiform-shape. (E) Type V, small fusiform-shape. (F) Type VI, S-shape.

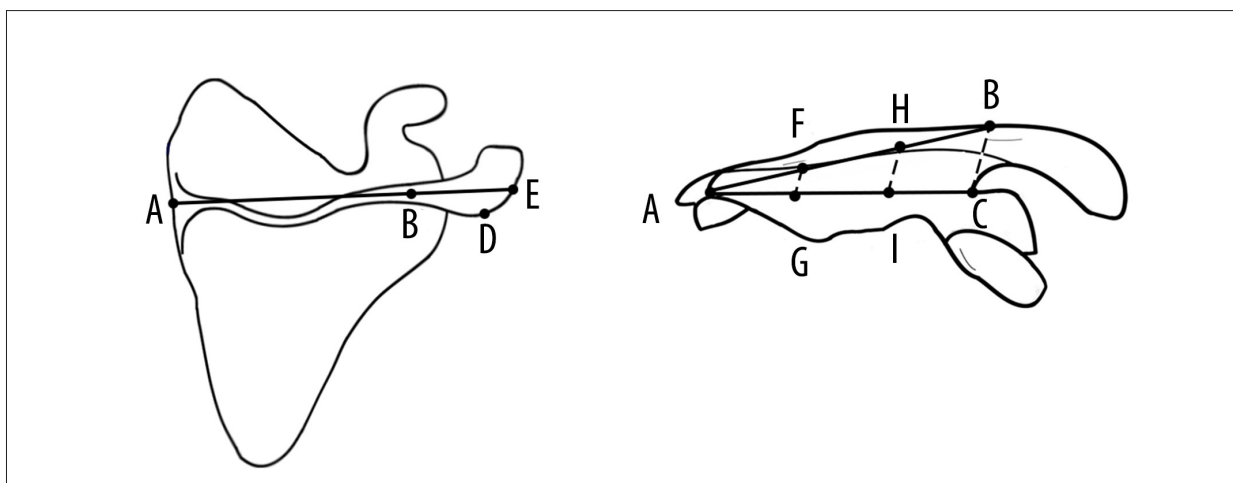


Figure 3. Morphometric measurements. AE (superior border of SS): length of SS measured from the medial edge of the scapula where it meets with the SS to the lateral edge of the acromion; BC (lateral border of SS, spinoglenoid notch): height of the spine at the lateral edge; AC (base border of SS): distance from the medial edge of the scapula where it meets with the SS to the edge of the spinoglenoid notch; AB: length of SS measured from the medial edge of the scapula where it meets with the SS to point where BC meets with the spine; AD: length of SS measured from the medial edge of the scapula where it meets with the SS to the corner of the acromion; FG and HI: height of the spine at point G and I; J, K, L, midpoints of FG, HI, and BC.

Table 1. Comparison of the height and length of the scapular spine in mm (n=354).

Type	N, %	AE	AD	AB	AC	BC	HI	FG
Type I	52, 14.69%	119.99± 7.45	107.11± 5.98	88.56± 9.91	74.17± 6.52	28.01± 3.47	23.57± 3.32	12.50± 3.18
Type II	80, 22.60%	128.72± 5.76 ^a	113.83± 7.10 ^a	91.24± 7.67 ^a	80.36± 5.94 ^a	27.43± 3.42	20.49± 3.37 ^a	14.08± 2.38 ^a
Type III	99, 27.97%	131.60± 8.56 ^{a,b}	115.84± 8.26 ^a	95.55± 7.02 ^{a,b}	84.23± 5.74 ^{a,b}	27.13± 4.17	19.50± 3.50 ^{a,b}	14.39± 2.77 ^a
Type IV	29, 8.19%	132.18± 5.95 ^{a,b}	117.03± 7.20 ^{a,b}	96.99± 5.83 ^{a,b}	84.51± 4.18 ^{a,b}	32.35± 4.90 ^{a,b,c}	25.62± 2.61 ^{a,b,c}	15.56± 1.89 ^{a,b,c}
Type V	83, 23.47%	129.29± 7.46 ^{a,c}	113.09± 6.15 ^{a,c,d}	91.77± 6.74 ^{a,c,d}	77.65± 6.50 ^{a,b,c,d}	32.11± 2.68 ^{a,b,c}	21.84± 3.73 ^{a,b,c}	11.66± 2.28 ^{b,c,d}
Type VI	11, 3.11%	129.15± 10.68 ^a	108.85± 4.36 ^{b,c,d}	93.20± 7.77	79.78± 8.99 ^{a,c,d}	31.54± 2.49 ^{a,b,c}	19.80± 3.56 ^a	13.93± 3.64 ^e
Average	354	128.67± 8.33	113.34± 7.63	92.71± 7.94	80.22± 7.05	29.06± 4.24	21.40± 3.89	13.48± 2.88

^a Versus Type I, *P*<0.05; ^b versus Type II, *P*<0.05; ^c versus Type III, *P*<0.05; ^d versus Type IV, *P*<0.05; ^e Type V, *P*<0.05.

Table 2. Comparison of the thickness of the scapular spine in mm based on classification (n=354, mm).

Type	B	H	F	L	K	J	C	I	G
Type I	10.60± 2.28	8.47± 2.33	7.50± 1.62	8.75± 1.98	6.30± 1.55	6.11± 1.52	9.97± 2.37	8.04± 1.58	7.59± 1.46
Type II	12.43± 1.74 ^a	10.85± 1.26 ^a	8.78± 1.49 ^a	9.13± 1.22	8.20± 1.26 ^a	7.02± 1.19 ^a	11.08± 1.26 ^a	10.03± 1.24 ^a	9.19± 1.22 ^a
Type III	12.57± 2.36 ^a	11.83± 1.34 ^{a,b}	11.06± 1.79 ^{a,b}	9.63± 1.56 ^{a,b}	9.54± 0.98 ^{a,b}	8.99± 1.53 ^{a,b}	11.96± 2.11 ^{a,b}	11.15± 1.90 ^{a,b}	12.28± 1.75 ^{a,b}
Type IV	14.97± 1.51 ^{a,b,c}	10.07± 1.57 ^{a,b,c}	11.29± 1.33 ^{a,b}	8.52± 0.82 ^c	6.76± 1.06 ^{b,c}	7.53± 1.27 ^{a,c}	11.42± 1.42 ^a	10.78± 1.42 ^{a,b}	11.46± 1.54 ^{a,b,c}
Type V	13.34± 2.40 ^{a,b,c,d}	7.12± 1.68 ^{a,b,c,d}	6.70± 1.10 ^{a,b,c,d}	8.40± 1.12 ^c	3.97± 1.23 ^{a,b,c,d}	4.50± 1.05 ^{a,b,c,d}	12.09± 1.79 ^{a,b,c}	8.15± 1.90 ^{b,c,d}	8.42± 1.21 ^{a,b,c,d}
Type VI	16.53± 2.17 ^{a,b,c,d,e}	7.73± 1.73 ^{b,c,d}	8.82± 1.43 ^{c,d,e}	9.04± 0.94	6.41± 1.53 ^{b,c,e}	5.32± 1.66 ^{b,c,d}	11.61± 1.49 ^a	9.40± 1.06 ^{a,c,d,e}	8.86± 1.50 ^{a,c,d}
Average	12.75± 2.51	9.74± 2.46	8.95± 2.34	8.99± 1.48	7.13± 2.42	6.84± 2.13	11.44± 1.97	9.65± 2.10	9.81± 2.30

^a Versus Type I, *P*<0.05; ^b versus Type II, *P*<0.05; ^c versus Type III, *P*<0.05; ^d versus Type IV, *P*<0.05; ^e Type V, *P*<0.05.

Statistical analysis

All data were categorized according to morphology and the measured side of the body (left or right). Statistical differences on the measured side of the body were assessed using independent sample *t*-tests. One-way ANOVA and a non-parametric test were used to analyze the statistical differences in the morphology of the body. The parameters were expressed as the mean ± standard deviation. All statistical analyses were fulfilled using SPSS version 17.0 software (SPSS Inc.), the inspection level was bilateral $\alpha=0.05$, and a *P*-value <0.05 was regarded to represent a statistically significant difference.

Results

In total, 6 types of variable SS based on morphological classifications were found and are shown in Figure 1. The thick type was the most common (27.97%), followed by a small fusiform-shape (23.47%), a slender rod-shape (22.60%), and a tenuous type (14.69%). The incidence of large fusiform-shape and S-shape was fairly small, at 8.19% and 3.11% respectively. The various types of SS based on morphological classifications are shown in Figures 2 and 3. The average lengths of landmarks of AE, AC, and BC were 128.67±8.33 mm, 80.22±7.05 mm, 29.06±4.24 mm, respectively. AB was the longest and significantly different in the large fusiform-shape type compared to

Table 3. Comparison of the height and length of the scapular spine based on body sides.

Type	N, %	AE	AD	AB	AC	BC	HI	FG
Right	193, 54.52%	128.45±8.33	113.17±7.83	92.86±7.32	80.67±7.11	29.48±4.26	21.69±3.95	13.49±3.01
Left	161, 45.48%	128.67±8.33	113.54±7.39	92.51±8.64	79.68±6.96	28.55±4.19	21.00±3.80	13.55±2.92
Average	354	128.55±8.32	113.34±7.63	92.71±7.93	80.22±7.05	29.06±4.24	21.38±3.89	13.51±2.97

There is no statistically significant differences.

Table 4. Comparison of the thickness of the scapular spine based on body side.

Type	B	H	F	L	K	J	C	I	G
Right	12.69±2.50	9.41±2.57	8.85±2.40	8.83±1.43	6.79±2.38	6.61±2.07	11.41±2.15	9.48±2.16	9.71±2.36
Left	12.82±2.51	10.13±2.78	9.06±2.26	9.18±1.51	7.54±2.41*	7.11±2.19*	11.48±1.75	9.86±2.01	9.93±2.23
Average	12.75±2.51	9.74±2.46	8.95±2.34	8.99±1.48	7.13±2.42	6.84±2.13	11.44±1.97	9.65±2.10	9.81±2.30

* Versus right, $P < 0.05$.

other types, while the S-shape type was the longest. The large fusiform-shape type had the longest length of AB, HI, and FG among the tenuous type and slender rod-shape type. An integrate description and summary of this results is shown in Table 1. The thickness of the landmarks of H, F, L, K, and J was the shortest and differed significantly between the small fusiform-shape type compared to the other 5 types (S-shape type was exclusive). However, the thick type was the thickest in most of the landmarks. An outline of the results is shown in Table 2. There is no statistically significant difference between the left and right measured sides of the length of the scapula, as presented in Table 3. As for the thickness of the landmarks of K and J, the left side was larger than the right side. There is no statistically significant difference between the left and right measured sides of the body in the other thick of landmarks, as presented in Table 4.

Discussion

Reverse shoulder arthroplasty (RSA) is a common therapeutic method which has been applied to a mass of etiologies and populations. However, it is related with an enhance number of complications and postoperative discomforts [15,20,22,56–60]. In particular, the occurrence of SS fractures has a prevalence ranging from 0.8% to 10.2% [6,13,14,16,20,22,56,58,60–68]. As far as we know, few studies have put forward the variable anatomy of SS [51–54]. However, the findings of this study present that it is a common occurrence for the morphological

variation of SS. Of the 354 scapulae examined, sorted into 6 types according to morphological features. Spines were classified as thick type (type I), small fusiform-shape type (type II), slender rod-shape type (type III), tenuous type (type IV), large fusiform-shape type (type V), and S-shape type (type VI). Similarly, suprascapular notch and lateral angle were classified to different types by dimensions of scapula [69–72]. Among our classification, type I (27.97%) was the most common, followed by type VI (23.47%), type III (22.60%), and type IV (14.69%). Type VI had the lowest incidence (3.11%). According to the study by Wang et al. [73], the fusiform-shape type was most frequent, and the slender rod-shape type was the least frequent. In previous studies, the average lengths of AE, AC, and BC were 133.6±11.8 mm, 85.5±8.7 mm and 46.1±6.3 mm, respectively [51–54]. This study yielded similar results in the average lengths of AE, AC, and BC at 128.67±8.33 mm, 80.22±7.05 mm and 29.06±4.24 mm, respectively.

As we can see from this study, type V was associated with a far longer length of AB, AD, HI, and FG and small type II was associated with a lesser thickness of many landmarks. Wang et al. demonstrated a similar result [51]. The results indicate that types II and V are associated with a crooked SS, which has more complex morphological characteristics compared to the other 4 types (type VI was exclusive), eventually causing a worse condition with the occurrence of trauma, particularly a fracture. The 2 types were more prone to an increased intraoperative risk and postoperative complications [51]. There are more difficulties in bending and rotating the plate to adapt the

shape of these 2 types in surgery. Therefore, during surgery with these 2 types, the duration of the surgery is more apt to be lengthened, which leads to increased overlying tissue irritation, and results in complications in the configuration of the bone-plate construct [36]. Wang et al. demonstrated a similar result [73]. However, some differences between types II and V were found in this study. Type V was associated with a longer length of many landmarks and a lesser thickness of many landmarks compared with type II. Thus, type V is associated with a large ease for the occurrence of fractures, so that the internal fixation is not recommended due to fragility. Similarly, type IV is associated with thinner SS, which may not be suitable for inner fixation and care should be taken during plate implantation. Moreover, there is an increasing hardware removal rate reaching 7.1% due to implant-related discomfort and failure [36,41]. Thus, knowledge of the morphologically variable characters of SS may help to improve preoperative planning. This information may guide the shape of a more compatible precontoured locking plate using 3D printing technology, which can reduce the material loss ratio.

The SS is a salient plate of the scapula, which has the adequate bone stock. The SS is thought to be an ideal area to bear screws, pins, or wires for stability of fracture fixation [51,73]. Nevertheless, the thickness of 9 landmarks was presented in this study. As regards the thickness of H, F, L, K, and J, type II was the thinnest among the 5 types (type VI was excluded). On the contrary, type I was the thickest. This indicates type II may have association with poor remaining bone stock following surgery, and thus the likelihood of fractures is greater. Type I was more stable and thus more able to withstand fixtures. Moreover, fragility related to the SS, the voluntary contraction of the muscle and avulsion of ligaments attached to the scapula are regarded as the main cause of trauma in some studies [62,74,75]. Types II, V and VI were associated with a crooked and thin SS, while type I was associated with a relatively straight and thick SS; type III had an association with a thinner SS. Type IV was associated with a wider inner and outer narrow SS. Thus, more care needs to be taken with type IV when placing the screw. High tensile, AC-joint reaction force, and compressive stresses in the cranial and caudal part of Ss had a contribution to the bending effects of the spine [76]. Furthermore, it is believed that increased screw pull-out strength has a direct connection with increased cortical thickness [77,78]. Thus, it may be more difficult to evaluate internal fixation to a direct or indirect trauma of type II. This result offers guidance for surgeons as regards surgical planning and improving preoperational diagnosis.

It is noteworthy that an abnormal type of SS (3.11%) was found, which was similar to an 'S' shape. This type had a coarse surface and tortile features. The incidence of stress and ossification of the tendon and tendinous fibers of the trapezius

muscles may be the reasons [73]. The S-shape type had the shortest AB. The thickness of many landmarks associated with this type was much thinner. Therefore, postoperative complications and fractures are more prone to occur in patients with SS of type VI. Taking this anatomical information into account may provide a more satisfactory results for patients with the long-term return of strength and function.

Some studies have proved that osteoporosis is a main reason of the increased risk of scapular fractures following reverse shoulder arthroplasty [6,15,18]. Several studies have recommended conservative treatment for patient with osteoporosis, particularly among the elderly [6,13]. In order to enhance the stability of the glenoid construct, through the SS longer posterior glenoid screw can be applied to [79–81]. However, the result can be easily influenced by an evident variability in bone quality and size. In this study, an additional longer posterior glenoid screw for type II is not recommended due to the congenital thin spine, which supplements this research. Furthermore, the thickness of the SS can affect the osteomyocutaneous flap. Fixation stability having a direct connection with the increased cortical thickness of the SS had been demonstrated in previous studies. In addition, cancellous bone density is directly associated with the mechanical support of the implant fixture [77,78]. Type II was related to a much thinner spine and restricted cortical and cancellous bone in this study. This would be negative factor in osseointegration and would weaken the support force.

The SS acts as an osteomyocutaneous flap, which was previously applied to reconstruct a composite flaw of the mandible [41]. This reconstructed method has also been extended to other complex and fickle flaw such as maxilla, face, head, pharyngeal, humerus, neck, femur defects, trauma and congenital malformations [42,44–46,81]. Tubbs et al. [48] found that the SS was very fit for posterior spinal fusion transplantation. The SS had been successfully used to posterior lumbar interbody fusion surgery. Due to the ease of gathering, minimal donor site morbidity, and credible blood supply to the bone, the SS is widely applied to in many regions of the body [49,50]. Long and strong bone healing and contours are needed for an optimal osteomyocutaneous flap to reconstruct complex three-dimensional bone flaw [42,81]. Furthermore, it is critical to estimate bone availability and familiarity with the morphological features of the spine for the proper contouring of the bone graft and for fitting defects to ensure optimal functional outcomes. Thus, the results of this study may be of significance for the application of SS in many areas.

Some limitations in this study. A total of 354 Chinese specimens were gathered from a university, but the age and gender of donors were unknown. The result of SS development was only speculative in this study, and we only used manual

measurements. CT and 3D scanning technology could have enriched our findings and might have produced more precise results. In addition, we lacked sufficient clinical data to make the connection between the rTSA and SS, and we do not know whether all participants were asymptomatic because this was an anatomical research rather than a clinical trial.

Conclusions

SS was sorted into 6 types according to the anatomical features among the Chinese SS specimens; types II, IV, V and VI of SS were more fragile due to more complex morphologies, which indicated that inner fixation and screw implantation needs to be considered. This study provides comprehensive and significant information about the SS in the Chinese population; these results might enhance the diagnostic accuracy and aid in the specific targeting of the site of intervention.

References:

- Anakwenze OA, Kancherla VK, Carolan GF, Abboud J: Coracoid fracture after reverse total shoulder arthroplasty: A report of 2 cases. *Am J Orthop*, 2015; 44(11): 469–72
- Levy JC, Everding NG, Gil CC Jr. et al: Speed of recovery after shoulder arthroplasty: A comparison of reverse and anatomical total shoulder arthroplasty. *J Shoulder Elbow Surg*, 2014; 23(12): 1872–81
- Simovitch RW, Friedman RJ, Cheung EV et al: Rate of improvement in clinical outcomes with anatomic and reverse total shoulder arthroplasty. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*, 2017; 99(21): 1801–11
- Crosby LA, Hamilton A, Twiss T: Scapula fractures after reverse total shoulder arthroplasty: Classification and treatment. *Clin Orthop*, 2011; 469(9): 2544–49
- Hamid N, Connor PM, Fleischli JF, D'Alessandro DF: Acromial fracture after reverse shoulder arthroplasty. *Am J Orthop*, 2011; 40(7): E125–29
- Levy JC, Anderson C, Samson A: Classification of postoperative acromial fractures following reverse shoulder arthroplasty. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*, 2013; 95(15): E104
- Levy JC, Blum S: Postoperative acromion base fracture resulting in subsequent instability of reverse shoulder replacement. *J Shoulder Elbow Surg*, 2012; 21(4): E14–18
- Rouleau DM, Gaudelli C: Successful treatment of fractures of the base of the acromion after reverse shoulder arthroplasty: Case report and review of the literature. *Int J Shoulder Surg*, 2013; 7(4): 149–52
- Teusink MJ, Otto RJ, Cottrell BJ, Frankle MA: What is the effect of postoperative scapular fracture on outcomes of reverse shoulder arthroplasty? *J Shoulder Elbow Surg*, 2014; 23(6): 782–90
- Wahlquist TC, Hunt AF, Braman JP: Acromial base fractures after reverse total shoulder arthroplasty: Report of five cases. *J Shoulder Elbow Surg*, 2011; 20(7): 1178–83
- Camarada L: Mesh plates for scapula fixation. *Tech Should Surg*, 2015; 16(3): 79–84
- Familiari F, Huri G, Gonzalez-Zapata A, McFarland EG: Scapula fracture and os acromiale after reverse total shoulder arthroplasty. *Orthopedics*, 2014; 37(7): 492–95
- Hatrup SJ: The influence of postoperative acromial and scapular spine fractures on the results of reverse shoulder arthroplasty. *Orthopedics*, 2010; 33(5): 302
- López Y, Rodríguez-González A, García-Fernández C, Marco F: Scapula insufficiency fractures after reverse total shoulder arthroplasty in rotator cuff arthropathy: What is their functional impact? *Rev Esp Cir Ortop Traumatol*, 2015; 59(5): 318–25
- Stevens CG, Murphy MR, Stevens TD et al: Bilateral scapular fractures after reverse shoulder arthroplasties. *J Shoulder Elbow Surg*, 2015; 24(2): E50–55
- Walch G, Mottier F, Wall B et al: Acromial insufficiency in reverse shoulder arthroplasties. *J Shoulder Elbow Surg*, 2009; 18(3): 495–502
- Anakwenze OA, Pifer MA, Singh A: Clavicle stress fracture after reverse shoulder arthroplasty. *J Shoulder Elbow Surg*, 2014; 23(7): E170–72
- Nicolay S, De Beuckeleer L, Stoffelen D et al: Atraumatic bilateral scapular spine fracture several months after bilateral reverse total shoulder arthroplasty. *Skeletal Radiol*, 2014; 43(5): 699–702
- Mayne IP, Bell SN, Wright W, Coghlan JA: Acromial and scapular spine fractures after reverse total shoulder arthroplasty. *Shoulder Elbow*, 2016; 8(2): 90–100
- Zumstein MA, Pinedo M, Old J, Boileau P: Problems, complications, reoperations, and revisions in reverse total shoulder arthroplasty: A systematic review. *J Shoulder Elbow Surg*, 2011; 20(1): 146–57
- Farshad M, Gerber C: Reverse total shoulder arthroplasty – from the most to the least common complication. *Int Orthop (SICOT)*, 2010; 34(8): 1075–82
- Clark JC, Ritchie J, Song FS et al: Complication rates, dislocation, pain, and postoperative range of motion after reverse shoulder arthroplasty in patients with or without repair of the subscapularis. *J Shoulder Elbow Surg*, 2012; 21(1): 36–41
- Black EM, Roberts SM, Siegel E et al: Failure after reverse total shoulder arthroplasty: What is the success of component revision? *J Shoulder Elbow Surg*, 2015; 24(12): 1908–14
- Boileau P, Melis B, Duperron D et al: Revision surgery of reverse shoulder arthroplasty. *J Shoulder Elbow Surg*, 2013; 22(10): 1359–70
- Ekelund A: Instability after reverse arthroplasty. Complications in shoulder arthroplasty. Montpellier: Saurams Medical, 2012
- Farshad M, Grögli M, Catanzaro S, Gerber C: Revision of reversed total shoulder arthroplasty: Indications and outcome. *MBC Musculoskel Disord*, 2012; 13(1): 160
- Gallo RA, Gamradt SC, Mattern CJ et al: Instability after reverse total shoulder arthroplasty. *J Shoulder Elbow Surg*, 2011; 20: 584–90

Acknowledgments

The authors, their immediate families, and any research foundations with which they are affiliated have not received any financial payments or other benefits from any commercial entity related to the subject of this article. The authors would like to thank all patients who agreed to participate in this study and the department of anatomy at Southwest Medical University for providing the specimens.

Data availability

The related SS data and other data used to support the findings of this study are restricted by the medical ethics committee of School of Basic Medical Sciences, Southwest Medical University. Data are available from Lei Zhang (email: zhanglei870722@126.com) for researchers who meet the criteria for access to confidential data.

Conflict of interests

None.

28. Stephens BC, Simon P, Clark RE et al: Revision for failed reverse: A 12-year review of a lateralized implant. *J Shoulder Elbow Surg*, 2016; 25(5): e115–24
29. Trappey GJ, O'Connor DP, Edwards TB: What are the instability and infection rates after reverse shoulder arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Rel Res*, 2011; 469(9): 2505–11
30. Caragounis EC, Fagevik Olsén M, Pazoiki D, Granhed H: Surgical treatment of multiple rib fractures and flail chest in trauma: A one-year follow-up study. *World J Emerg Surg*, 2016; 11: 27
31. Slobogean GP, MacPherson CA, Sun T et al: Surgical fixation vs. nonoperative management of flail chest: A meta-analysis. *J Am Coll Surg*, 2013; 216(2): 302–11
32. Tanaka H, Yukioka T, Yamaguti Y et al: Surgical stabilization of internal pneumatic stabilization? A prospective randomized study of management of severe flail chest patients. *J Trauma*, 2002; 52(4): 727–32
33. Granetzny A, Abd El-Aal M, Emam E et al: Surgical versus conservative treatment of flail chest: evaluation of the pulmonary status. *Interact Cardiovasc Thorac Surg*, 2005; 4(6): 583–87
34. Guarino J, Tennyson S, McCain G et al: Rapid prototyping technology for surgeries of the pediatric spine and pelvis: benefits analysis. *J Pediatr Orthop*, 2007; 27(8): 955–60
35. Lantry JM, Roberts CS, Giannoudis PV: Operative treatment of scapular fractures: A systematic review. *Injury*, 2008; 39(3): 271–83
36. Park AY, DiStefano JG, Nguyen TQ et al: Congruency of scapula locking plates: implications for implant design. *Am J Orthop (Belle Mead NJ)*, 2012; 41(4): E53–56
37. Wu AM, Lin J, Kwan KYH et al: 3D-printing techniques in spine surgery: The future prospects and current challenges. *Expert Rev Med Devices*, 2018; 15: 399–401
38. Rapp van Roden EA, Richardson RT et al: Shoulder complex mechanics in adolescent idiopathic scoliosis and their relation to patient-perceived function. *J Pediatr Orthop*, 2018; 38(8): e446–54
39. Bartonicek J, Klika D: Classification of scapular body fractures. *Rozhl Chir*, 2018; 97(2): 67–76
40. Brown C, Elmobdy K, Raja AS, Rodriguez RM: Scapular fractures in the pan-can era. *Acad Emerg Med*, 2018; 25(407): 738–43
41. Panje W, Cutting C: Trapezius osteomyocutaneous island flap for reconstruction of the anterior floor of the mouth and the mandible. *Head Neck Surg*, 1980; 3(1): 66–71
42. Chen WL, Chen ZW, Yang ZH et al: The trapezius osteomyocutaneous island flap for reconstructing hemi mandibular and oral defects following the ablation of advanced oral malignant tumours. *J Craniomaxillofac Surg*, 2009; 37(2): 91–95
43. Pinsolle V, Tessier R, Casoli V et al: The pedicled vascularized scapular bone flap for proximal humerus reconstruction and short humeral stump lengthening. *J Plast Reconstr Aesthet Surg*, 2007; 60(9): 1019–24
44. Bem C, O'Hare PM: Reconstruction of the mandible using the scapular spine pedicled upon trapezius muscle; Description of the posterior approach to the transverse cervical vessels. *Br J Plast Surg*, 1986; 39(4): 473–77
45. Gregor RT, Davidge-Pitts KJ: Trapezius osteomyocutaneous flap for mandibular reconstruction. *Arch Otolaryngol*, 1985; 111(3): 198–203
46. Panje WR: Mandible reconstruction with the trapezius osteomusculocutaneous flap. *Arch Otolaryngol*, 1985; 111(4): 223–29
47. Scapinelli R: Posterior addition acromioplasty in the treatment of recurrent posterior instability of the shoulder. *J Shoulder Elbow Surg*, 2006; 15(4): 424–31
48. Tubbs RS, Wartmann CT, Louis RG Jr. et al: Use of the scapular spine in lumbar fusion procedures: Cadaveric feasibility study. Laboratory investigation. *J Neurosurg Spine*, 2007; 7(7): 554–57
49. Vacher C, de Vasconcellos JJ: The anatomical basis of the osteomusculocutaneous trapezius flap in mandibular reconstruction. *Surg Radiol Anat*, 2005; 27(1): 1–7
50. Hartman EH, Spauwen PH, Jansen JA: Donor-site complications in vascularized bone flap surgery. *J Invest Surg*, 2002; 15(4): 185–97
51. Burke CS, Roberts CS, Nyland JA et al: Scapular thicknesses implications for fracture fixation. *J Shoulder Elbow Surg*, 2006; 15(5): 645–48
52. Von Schroeder HP, Kuiper SD, Botte MJ: Osseous anatomy of the scapula. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*, 2001; 383(383): 131–39
53. Ebraheim NA, Xu R, Haman SP et al: Quantitative anatomy of the scapula. *Am J Orthop (Belle Mead NJ)*, 2000; 29(4): 287–92
54. Maves MD, Philippsen LP: Surgical anatomy of the scapular spine in the trapezius-osteomuscular flap. *Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg*, 1986; 112(2): 173–75
55. Mallon WJ, Brown HR, Vogler JB 3rd, Martinez S: Radiographic and geometric anatomy of the scapula. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*, 1922; 277: 142–54
56. Alentorn-Geli E, Samitier G, Torrens C, Wright TW: Reverse shoulder arthroplasty. Part 2: Systematic review of reoperations, revisions, problems, and complications. *Int J Shoulder Surg*, 2015; 9(2): 60–67
57. Ascione F, Domos P, Guarrella V et al: Long-term humeral complications after Grammont style reverse shoulder arthroplasty. *J Shoulder Elbow Surg*, 2018; 27(6): 1065–71
58. Frankle M, Siegal S, Pupello D et al: The reverse shoulder prosthesis for glenohumeral arthritis associated with severe rotator cuff deficiency. A minimum two-year follow-up study of sixty patients. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*, 2005; 87: 1697–705
59. Lópiz Y, Rodríguez-González A, García-Fernández C, Marco F: Scapula insufficiency fractures after reverse total shoulder arthroplasty in rotator cuff arthropathy: What is their functional impact? *Rev Esp Cir Ortop Traumatol*, 2015; 59(5): 318–25
60. Otto RJ, Virani NA, Levy JC et al: Scapular fractures after RSA: Evaluation of risk factors and the reliability of a proposed classification. *J Shoulder Elbow Surg*, 2013; 22(11): 1514–21
61. Ascione F: Reverse shoulder arthroplasty with a new convertible short stem: Preliminary 2- to 4-year follow-up results. *J Shoulder Elbow Arthroplasty*, 2017
62. García-Coiradas J, Lópiz Y, Marco F: Stress fracture of the scapular spine associated with rotator cuff dysfunction: Report of 3 cases and review of the literature. *Rev Esp Cir Ortop Traumatol*, 2014; 58(5): 314–18
63. Crosby LA, Hamilton A, Twiss T: Scapula fractures after reverse total shoulder arthroplasty: Classification and treatment. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*, 2011; 469(9): 2544–49
64. Cuff D, Pupello D, Virani N et al: Reverse shoulder arthroplasty for the treatment of rotator cuff deficiency. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*, 2008; 90(6): 1244–51
65. Dubrow S, Streit JJ, Muh S et al: Acromial stress fractures: Correlation with acromioclavicular osteoarthritis and acromiohumeral distance. *Orthopedics*, 2014; 37(12): e1074–79
66. Kennon JC, Lu C, McGee-Lawrence ME, Crosby LA: Scapula fracture incidence in reverse total shoulder arthroplasty using screws above or below metaglene central cage: Clinical and biomechanical outcomes. *J Shoulder Elbow Surg*, 2017; 26(6): 1023–30
67. Neyton I: Scapular fractures after Grammont reverse shoulder arthroplasty. *Rev Chir Orthop Traumatol*, 2017; 103: S143–44
68. Romano AM, Oliva F, Nastrucci G et al: Reverse shoulder arthroplasty patient personalized rehabilitation protocol. Preliminary results according to prognostic groups. *Muscles Ligaments Tendons J*, 2017; 7(2): 263–70
69. Albino P, Carbone S, Candela V et al: Morphometry of the suprascapular notch: Correlation with scapular dimensions and clinical relevance. *BMC Musculoskelet Disord*, 2013; 14: 172
70. Polgaj M, Sibiński M, Grzegorzewski A et al: Morphological and radiological study of ossified superior transverse scapular ligament as potential risk factor of suprascapular nerve entrapment. *Biomed Res Int*, 2014; 2014: 613601
71. Polgaj M, Jędrzejewski KS, Podgórski M, Topol M: Correlation between morphometry of the suprascapular notch and anthropometric measurements of the scapula. *Folia Morphol (Warsz)*, 2011; 70(2): 109–15
72. Zhang L, Guo X, Liu Y et al: Classification of the superior angle of the scapula and its correlation with the suprascapular notch: A study on 303 scapulas. *Surg Radiol Anat*, 2019; 41(4): 377–83
73. Wang J, Li Y, Kong X et al: Two gastroenteritis outbreaks caused by sapovirus in Shenzhen, China. *J Med Virol*, 2018; 90(43): 1695–702
74. Morioka T, Honma T, Ogawa K: Incomplete avulsion fractures of the scapular spine caused by violent muscle contraction. *Keio J Med*, 2014; 63(1): 13–17
75. Groot D, Giesberts AM, van Mourik JB: Spontaneous scapular spine fracture related to rotator cuff pathology: A report of two cases. *Strategies Trauma Limb Reconstr*, 2012; 7(2): 105–7
76. Gupta S, van der Helm FC: Load transfer across the scapula during humeral abduction. *J Biomech*, 2004; 37(7): 1001–9

77. Myoung H, Kim YY, Heo MS et al: Comparative radiologic study of bone density and cortical thickness of donor bone used in mandibular reconstruction. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod*, 2001; 92(1): 23–29
78. Niimi A, Ozeki K, Ueda M, Nakayama B: A comparative study of removal torque of endosseous implants in the fibula, iliac crest and scapula of cadavers: Preliminary report. *Clin Oral Implants Res*, 1997; 84(4): 286–89
79. Hoenig MP, Loeffler B, Brown S et al: Reverse glenoid component fixation: Is a posterior screw necessary? *J Shoulder Elbow Surg*, 2010; 19(4): 544–49
80. Codsì MJ, Iannotti JP: The effect of screw position on the initial fixation of a reverse total shoulder prosthesis in a glenoid with a cavitory bone defect. *J Shoulder Elbow Surg*, 2008; 17(3): 479–86
81. Klein SM, Dunning P, Mulieri P et al: Effects of acquired glenoid bone defects on surgical technique and clinical outcomes in reverse shoulder arthroplasty. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*, 2010; 92(5): 1144–54