

Robotics and AI for Teleoperation, Tele-assessment, and Tele-training for Surgery in the Era of COVID-19: Existing Challenges, and Future Vision

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13 Abstract

14 The unprecedented shock caused by the COVID-19 pandemic has severely influenced the delivery of
15 regular healthcare services. Most non-urgent medical activities, including elective surgeries, have been
16 paused to mitigate the risk of infection and to dedicate medical resources to managing the pandemic.
17 In this regard, not only surgeries are substantially influenced, but also pre- and post-operative
18 assessment of patients and training for surgical procedures have been significantly impacted due to the
19 pandemic. Many countries are planning a phased reopening, which includes the resumption of some
20 surgical procedures. However, it is not clear how the reopening safe-practice guidelines will impact
21 the quality of healthcare delivery. This perspective article evaluates the use of robotics and AI in (a)
22 robotics-assisted surgery, (b) tele-examination of patients for pre- and post-surgery, and (c) tele-
23 training for surgical procedures. Surgeons interact with a large number of staff and patients on a daily
24 basis. Thus, the risk of infection transmission between them raises concerns. In addition, pre- and post-
25 operative assessment also raises concerns about increasing the risk of disease transmission, in
26 particular, since many patients may have other underlying conditions, which can increase their chances
27 of mortality due to the virus. The pandemic has also limited the time and access that trainee surgeons
28 have for training in the OR and/or in the presence of an expert. In this article, we describe existing
29 challenges and possible solutions and suggest future research directions that may be relevant for
30 robotics and AI in addressing the three tasks mentioned above.

31 1 Introduction

32 The novel coronavirus has been declared a public health emergency of international concern by WHO
33 in Jan 2020 (WHO, n.d.). By the time of writing this paper, all countries are affected by the pandemic.
34 The unprecedented shock wave of the virus spread has impacted regular health care service delivery.

35 The extreme pressure on healthcare systems has exceeded capacity, and managing the pandemic has
36 become a global issue that has drastically influenced most aspects of the healthcare system. The
37 performance of surgeries (most of which are categorized as elective surgeries), training for surgery,
38 and assessments for surgery are aspects that have been significantly impacted.

39 Due to the chance of false negatives in the pre-surgery COVID-19 testing of patients, all patients have
40 to be treated as suspect cases. Dealing with infected or suspected patients requires precautions such as
41 consideration for anesthesiologists (Willer et al., 2020), limitation of staff exposure to patients, and
42 wearing PPE, which poses difficulties to operating theatre (Anil Kumar, 2020). However, these
43 procedures cannot guarantee the safety of staff and patients. Moreover, since hospital staff is in contact
44 with several people each day, cross-infection through staff should also be considered.

45 New regulations have recommended a moratorium on elective surgery to avoid virus spread in hospitals
46 by minimizing personal interactions and expenditure of medical resources for infected patients who
47 need intensive care. Deferring elective surgeries is based on opinions and has secondary consequences.
48 Progression of the disease continues when the patient is waiting for surgery. This has a substantial
49 impact on the life quality of patients (Fu et al., 2020), results in higher treatment costs (Reyes et al.,
50 2019), and may cause unexpected death (Zafar, 2020). On the other hand, elective surgeries are not
51 optional and must be performed eventually. Thus, there may be a need for performing a deferred
52 surgery during the COVID-19 time frame. Moreover, catching up with the 2 million backlogged
53 elective surgeries worldwide each week will impose a huge burden on the healthcare system when
54 elective surgeries resume (Szklański, 2020).

55 This unprecedented scenario not only has affected surgeries, but has also influenced surgery-related
56 activities profoundly. Surgical education has been affected adversely by the pandemic. There has been
57 a gradual reopening of activities, including schools, but with the anticipated rise in the rate of infection
58 it is anticipated that there will be some levels of shut down again in this sector. Trainees are banished
59 from wards, and residents have lost their access to practical OR training (Ferrario et al., 2020; Ferrel
60 et al., 2020). In addition, emergency and non-deferable surgeries are being done by senior surgeons
61 without the presence of trainees to reduce operation time and risk of complications, and mitigate the
62 risk of residents' exposure to COVID-19 (Bernardi et al., 2020). This situation has imposed mental
63 anxiety and has slowed down the learning curve of residents and medical students, who will be needed
64 in catching-up with deferred surgeries in the future (Ahmed et al., 2020).

65 Moreover, going into hospitals for pre- and post-surgery assessments is also a safety concern during
66 the pandemic. There is always an infection risk for any minute that a non-COVID patient spends in a
67 hospital. Consequently, hospitals try to discharge patients as soon as possible to reduce the risk of
68 infection. Besides, the closure of medical offices has disturbed pre- and post-surgery assessments
69 (Scaravonati et al., 2020).

70 Since there is no widely approved or sufficiently tested vaccine, there is a possible chance of second
71 and third global waves in the Fall and Winter, and continuing lockdown regulations imposes an
72 intolerable burden on the healthcare system. Several countries are therefore planning for a reopening
73 guideline to resume safe delivery of surgical services (Dattani et al., 2020). However, it is not clear
74 how the reopening phase will affect the quality of healthcare delivery and how the above-mentioned
75 tasks should be performed safely while there is a lack of a clinically approved therapy for COVID-19.
76 This perspective paper proposes robotics and artificial intelligence (AI) as a solution for the three
77 above-mentioned tasks and investigates potential opportunities in the area to address the mentioned
78 problems.

79 2 Robotics-assisted surgery

80 Minimally invasive surgery (MIS) has demonstrated superiority over open surgery. Less amount of
81 blood loss, and shorter recovery and hospital stay are the main reasons for the preference of MIS when
82 it is possible. Meanwhile, robotics-assisted MIS (RAMIS) has evolved and shown superhuman
83 capabilities for teleoperation and has found its place in MIS. Teleoperation offers surgeons an
84 ergonomically operating posture (Ballantyne, 2002), provides them with more dexterity than
85 conventional laparoscopy (Moorthy et al., 2004), enhances the accuracy of motion beyond surgeons'
86 natural ability, etc. Besides these benefits, the main virtue that distinguishes teleoperation in the
87 COVID-19 era is providing the ability to separate the surgeon's console (leader robot) from the patient
88 robot (follower robot) while keeping them connected through a communication interface (Challacombe
89 et al., 2003).

90 Telesurgery affords physical separation of the surgeon from the patient, in a separate room avoiding
91 bilateral infection transfer, which can be life-threatening. In addition, the number of bedside staff in
92 RAMIS is less than in open surgery (Kimmig et al., 2020). This provides the safety of the patient and
93 operating room by reducing inter-personal contacts to the lowest level possible. This performance has
94 been shown experimentally. In the USA, a CorPath robotic intervention arm has been used in coronary
95 intervention on a COVID patient to provide safety of the personnel (Tabaza et al., 2020).

96 Dealing with an infected or suspected patient requires a maximal level of protection (Liang, 2020). The
97 physical disturbance caused by this level of protection has a negative influence on surgical
98 performance. On the other hand, the COVID-19 situation increases the surgeon's mental stress, which
99 critically affects the surgeon's performance. Elevated stress levels could likely be due to the fear of
100 contracting the virus or spreading it to patients and the surgeon's family (Tan et al., 2020). Studies
101 have shown that depression, anxiety, insomnia, and stress have increased, especially among front-line
102 healthcare providers during the pandemic (Lin et al., 2020). High stress levels may result in
103 inappropriate responses, such as poor decision making and impaired psychomotor performance (Arora
104 et al., 2010; Wetzel et al., 2006). The elevated psychological stress levels among healthcare providers
105 may sustain even one year after the outbreak as it happened in 2004 with SARS (Lee et al., 2007). Not
106 only telesurgery reduces surgeon's stress by providing better ergonomics during surgery (Berguer et
107 al., 2006), but also, during the COVID era, robotics-assisted surgery significantly reduces stress levels
108 by providing higher infection protection through physical distancing between the patient and the
109 surgeon; also, it reduces the number of needed medical staff to be present in close proximity to the
110 patient and each other during prolonged surgeries (which can increase the possibility of infection
111 transfer between a patient and staff and between staff members). It should be highlighted that robotics
112 assisted surgery does not make the aforementioned interactions zero as there is always the need for
113 some format of interaction between a patient and staff. However, it reduces the duration and the number
114 of interactions.

115 Recently, the concept of semi-autonomous and autonomous surgery has attracted a great deal of interest
116 thanks to advancements in the area of machine intelligence especially when combined with computer
117 vision (Moawad et al., 2020). When compared with teleoperated robotic surgery, AI-based autonomous
118 and semi-autonomous robotic systems has not been fully exploited in the literature as these are newer
119 topics of the field. In the language of surgery project, it has been shown that combining AI with
120 teleoperation can provide a semi-automated system that can recognize and perform tasks automatically
121 when there is a pre-trained model for the recognized task, allowing for faster and high accuracy
122 procedures (Bohren et al., 2011). Semi-autonomous robots have been used for orthopedic surgery, such
123 as MAKOpasty, when preoperative images are fused with intraoperative information to provide

124 surgeons with an augmented sensorimotor capability through production of dynamic virtual fixture in
125 time and space. More recently, fully-autonomous robotic surgery has been discussed in medical robotic
126 communities and preliminary experiments on ex-vivo tissue have shown promising results. The
127 performance and accuracy of semi-autonomous surgical robots have been proved clinically (Hampp et
128 al., 2019). For example, the MAKO (Stryker, n.d.) and NAVIO (Smith & Nephew, n.d.) robots guide
129 the surgeon in joint arthroplasty semi-autonomously and prevent excessive bone loss. This guarantees
130 proper bone preparation and precise implantation. However, autonomous surgical robots, despite their
131 great accuracy in comparison to manual procedures (Shademan et al., 2016), are still in the non-clinical
132 development phase. In the context of remote operation, the use of autonomous robots can provide a
133 higher degree of separation while providing some additional accuracy through processing of
134 multimodal intraoperative information. However, this is a technologically challenging field which
135 should be investigated to provide more autonomy regarding management of surgery during a crisis
136 such as COVID-19.

137 The other benefit of RAMIS in the COVID-19 era is that it increases the availability of intensive care
138 unit (ICU) beds. The smaller incision for RAMIS shortens patient's recovery time and hospital stay.
139 This allows hospitals to dedicate more ICU beds to critically ill cases while handling surgeries. There
140 is however a shortcoming in terms of the OR time usage for RAMIS as a result of the extra setting-up
141 time and longer procedure times (Cho et al., 2016; Heemskerk et al., 2007; Lindfors et al., 2018).
142 Nonetheless, a shorter post-surgery hospital stay is of paramount importance and outweighs the longer
143 OR time, notably in the COVID-19 era. Moreover, deploying AI in robotic surgery has been shown to
144 decrease soft tissue damage and consequently decrease recovery time (Wall et al., 2020).

145 Due to abdominal pressure in laparoscopic surgery, there are some concerns about the possibility of
146 aerosolization of viral particles and contamination through surgery smoke in laparoscopic surgery
147 (Schwarz et al., 2020; Van den Eynde et al., 2020). Although these methods of infection are not
148 completely proved for COVID-19 yet, safety regulations should be considered to prevent possible
149 infections. It should be noted that surgical smoke is also released in open surgeries; however, in
150 RAMIS, it is easier to handle the smoke trapped in the patient's body. Safety precautions to prevent
151 these issues are (a) lowering the electrocautery power to reduce the amount of smoke production
152 (Mottrie, 2020); (b) smoke evacuation and abdominal deflation through ultra-low penetrating air
153 (ULPA) filter (Kimmig et al., 2020); and (c) reducing abdominal pressure to the lowest possible.
154 RAMIS surgeries are feasible to perform with lower abdominal pressure than conventional
155 laparoscopic surgery (Kimmig et al., 2020). To summarize, RAMIS is safer than MIS and open surgery
156 in terms of contamination through aerosolization of viral particles for bedside staff.

157 Telerobotic surgical systems have solved several issues associated with conventional MIS and also
158 provided the surgeon with new capabilities. These features are (1) depth perception; (2) dexterity
159 enhancement; (3) improved accuracy; (4) better hand-eye coordination; and (5) and multiple tools
160 delivery through a single incision (Atashzar et al., 2018). Moreover, in teleoperation, information and
161 operation data can be saved and used for training purposes both for AI supervision and training of
162 novice surgeons (Zemmar et al., 2020). The problem of degraded haptic feedback in conventional
163 laparoscopy has not been solved yet. Better tracking accuracy and improved surgical performances
164 have been achieved using the haptic feedback in RAMIS (Talasaz et al., 2014), (Currie et al., 2017).
165 Related to this, the lack of haptic feedback increases the risk of tissue damage due to large unintentional
166 forces. Other modalities of feedback such as visual force feedback of the tool (Tavakoli et al., 2006),
167 a tactile sensor and tactile ultrasound (tactUS) instrument for palpation and tumor localization (Naidu
168 et al., 2017a, 2017b; Trejos et al., 2009), and skin stretch feedback (Schorr et al., 2013) are influential
169 in robotic surgery, but none of them can completely make up for the absence of haptic feedback. Thus,

170 enabling telerobotic surgical systems with force sensing and force reflecting modules is of high
171 importance, which increases the quality of teleoperated surgery (Talasaz et al., 2017, 2013). A machine
172 learning algorithm has been deployed to estimate the elongation of suture from knot type, initial suture
173 length, and surgical thread type data, and visual feedback has been used to warn the surgeon of the risk
174 of suture breakage (Dai et al., 2019). In particular, considering a larger number of surgeries that can
175 benefit from teleoperated procedures using robots, during the era of COVID, addressing this challenge
176 should be accelerated. This topic has seen ongoing research, and unfortunately, the current trend does
177 not show a promise of an upcoming solution. With improving technology for haptic feedback, this can
178 result in a major advance in the performance of teleoperated surgeries on a larger scale and can enlarge
179 the domain of surgeries, which can be conducted teleoperatively, helping with the management of the
180 current concerns regarding infection transfer during surgery in the time of COVID.

181 There are two characteristics associated with a good haptic teleoperation system: transparency and
182 stability. In the last three decades, a significant amount of research has been done on developing a
183 transparent control architecture. Four-Channel Lawrence (FCL) was proposed as the first transparent
184 teleoperation system (Lawrence, 1993). It was modified to simpler architectures (Hashtrudi-Zaad et
185 al., 2001), (Hashtrudi-zaad et al., 2002). Atashzar et al. proposed a simplified two-channel modified-
186 ELFC (M-ELFC) architecture that provides a high degree of transparency (Atashzar et al., 2012). To
187 deal with the stability issue, three categories of passivity-based controllers have been proposed: (1) the
188 Wave Variable approach (Aziminejad et al., 2008); (2) Time Domain Passivity Approach (TDPA)
189 (Ryu et al., 2010); and (3) Small-gain approach (Atashzar et al., 2017a). Both techniques stabilize the
190 system; however, stabilization comes at the cost of compromising transparency. Considerable research
191 has been done to improve the performance of teleoperation (Artigas et al., 2010; Atashzar et al., 2017b;
192 Chawda et al., 2015; Panzirsch et al., 2019; Singh et al., 2019), but the proposed stabilization methods
193 are still far from ideal. The discussion above clarifies some of the technical challenges creating
194 obstacles to realizing high-fidelity haptics-enabled teleoperated surgery. The potential of RAMIS in
195 resolving the surgical issues caused by COVID-19 is calling for an accelerated trend of research and
196 development, extending the performance of teleoperated surgical robotic systems for allowing more
197 benefit of this technology in reducing the burden on the healthcare system during the pandemic and
198 similar crises in the future.

199 **Remark:** AI has been extensively developed in the last decade and has revolutionized many industries.
200 However, the application of AI in surgical procedures requires a significant amount of adaptation and
201 consideration. Robotic surgery can take advantage of AI in the COVID era from three aspects; (a)
202 increasing accuracy and reducing the risk of failure by providing shared and full autonomy in simple
203 tasks (Rabinovich et al., 2020; Wall et al., 2020); (b) allowing physical distancing by changing the
204 surgeon's role from executive and continuous control to supervisory and intermittent control; and (c)
205 increasing the average number of surgical procedures, which will be required to address the backlogged
206 surgeries caused by the shutdown of elective surgeries over a long period of time, thereby reducing the
207 load on surgeons and allowing after-hour surgeries (Zemmar et al., 2020).

208 3 Tele-examination of patients

209 Preoperative examination for surgery preplanning and post-operative patient examination in the
210 recovery time is another matter of concern in the COVID-19 era. In-person visits increase the risk of
211 virus contraction for the patient and the surgeon. Keeping personal interactions as low as possible is
212 the key factor in dealing with the pandemic.

213 Post-operative examinations may include patient's assessment at home and ICU. Telepresence robots
214 that are made for telehealthcare purposes allow physicians to interact with patients, and monitor
215 patients' vital signs without the physical presence of the surgeon in the ICU (Laniel et al., 2017). These
216 systems have been used in Italy at COVID-19 patients' bedside in the ICU (Bogue, 2020; Pullella,
217 2020). A similar robot has been used in Israel to communicate with quarantined patients (MARKS,
218 2020). In terms of home healthcare, messages, phone, and video calls have been used for post-operative
219 examination. It has been shown that telepresence robots could provide a stronger feeling of a person to
220 person interaction for both users, in comparison to video and phone calls, and both physicians and
221 patients have expressed satisfaction (Tavakoli et al., 2020), (Becevic et al., 2015).

222 Preoperative examinations have also been done with AI- and robotics-enabled telehealth, but
223 applications are limited due to the lack of physical exams and the need for clinical imaging. However,
224 it has been shown that for some specific conditions, diagnosis via telemedicine could be as accurate as
225 an in-person diagnosis when examination through telemedicine is feasible subject to limitations (Asiri
226 et al., 2018). For example, AI can be used for digital triage to direct patients to the most appropriate
227 medical center based on the resources and their condition before they show up in emergency rooms
228 (Lai et al., 2020). As another example, it has been shown that blood draw and injections can be done
229 with portable robots using AI more accurately and faster than a manual procedure (Zemmar et al.,
230 2020). Another example is the telerobotic system that has been used in China to perform cardiac and
231 lung ultrasound on a COVID patient (Wang et al., 2020). These systems can help safeguard patients
232 and staff by reducing the need for patient referral to hospital and physical distancing.

233 Robotics and AI have taken a step in the development of tele-examination of patients during pre- and
234 post-operative phases. However, there is still room for adding new capabilities to tele-healthcare robots
235 in order to lower the need for in-person examinations or patient referrals to hospital. Besides robots,
236 focusing on smartphone-based or computer-based tele-examination systems would be useful because
237 of their widespread use.

238 **4 Tele-training of surgeons**

239 The outbreak of COVID-19 has severely affected surgical training procedures. The most significant
240 components of surgical training are comprised of theoretical, pre-clinical, and hands-on clinical
241 training, but the lockdown caused by the pandemic has severely limited the opportunities for students
242 and residents to acquire surgical training (Puliatti et al., 2020), (Bernardi et al., 2020). High-quality
243 and intense healthcare support, which would be needed during and after COVID-19, requires precise
244 training. Although some schools are in a gradual reopening phase, there would be some level of shut
245 down again with the next wave of the pandemic.

246 In such extraordinary conditions, online learning, teleconferences, and webinars can be of benefit with
247 regard to surgical education and fill the gap with regard to theoretical training issues (Dedeilia et al.,
248 2020). The benefits of these online learning technologies have been shown prior to the COVID-19
249 pandemic.

250 On the other hand, robotics and AI could improve the quality of pre-clinical training. Pre-clinical
251 training is conventionally performed through dry or wet lab practices. The use of robotic simulators
252 based on virtual reality (VR) systems has shown a significant improvement in novice surgeons' skills
253 (Tergas et al., 2013). Hands-on-Surgical Training (HoST) provided by augmented reality (AR), and
254 dual-user teleoperated system with virtual fixtures are more advanced simulators that help the novice
255 surgeon to navigate using haptics-enabled cues outside the OR (Kumar et al., 2015; Shahbazi et al.,

256 2013). Xperience Team Trainer developed by Mimic Simulations allows teamwork training in the OR
257 at the pre-clinical stage (Mimics, 2020). This technology provides simultaneous training for the novice
258 surgeon and the bedside assistant to improve coordination between the surgeon and assistant.

259 The preservation of acquired skills is another important issue in the COVID time. Surgical skills
260 including motor and cognitive skills decay when a surgeon goes through a long period of time without
261 using the acquired skills (Perez et al., 2013). Simulation-based medical education may fill the gap in
262 surgical practice and prevent the loss of surgical skills during a lockdown (Higgins et al., 2020). In
263 addition, AI can be employed to interpret the data collected from simulations for surgeons' skill
264 evaluation (Winkler-Schwartz et al., 2019).

265 Because the above-mentioned technologies provide high-quality training while keeping social
266 distancing, they could be part of the solution for the educational gap in the COVID-19 era. An active
267 line of research and development that can be accelerated would be to design and develop small,
268 inexpensive, and portable sensorized robotic modules connected to cloud-based virtual reality surgical
269 environments. A large number of trainee surgeons could then continue their hands-on practice/training
270 when access to training facilities is significantly restricted. This is critical because sensorimotor
271 learning is a continual process in the human brain, and a long pause before getting to the agency level
272 can drastically result in fading of sensorimotor skills.

273 Theoretical and pre-clinical training may guide students to pass the cognitive phase of learning;
274 however, the integration phase, which gives them appropriate motor skills to perform surgery, requires
275 performing surgery under the supervision of an expert in the OR (Choi et al., 2020). Residents would
276 have very limited access to this form of training due to cancelation of elective surgery (Imielski, 2020)
277 or requirements of social distancing. For telesurgery which is more challenging for residents to perform
278 than open surgery and requires specific training, a viable solution that can be achieved using existing
279 systems can be developed using hand-over-hand haptic-enabled tele-training (realized by multilateral
280 teleoperation systems). This would not only allow novice surgeons to perform surgery from a safe
281 distance, but also give them the opportunity to be supervised by an expert at the same time (Shahbazi
282 et al., 2018a, 2018b). The dual console teleoperation system format shares the control of the operation
283 between the expert and the trainee. Incorporating haptics-enabled feedback would then provide the
284 trainee with real-time force feedback. This format of telesurgery training gives the resident experience
285 through supervised surgery without jeopardizing the safety of the patient or the resident during the
286 constraints imposed by COVID-19. Furthermore, these multilateral tele-training systems could also be
287 set up to evaluate the motor skills of trainees based on their performance.

288 **5 Discussion and Conclusions**

289 The novel coronavirus has challenged the healthcare system across the globe. Social distancing has
290 become a new normal and may remain for a significant length of time especially as a result of the lack
291 of vaccine and treatment for a critical period of time. This has deeply impacted surgeries and surgically
292 related activities which may revolutionize how future healthcare systems function. Canceling elective
293 surgeries was an efficient policy to curb the spread of the virus; nevertheless, keeping to this plan could
294 have a detrimental effect on the health of patients and the healthcare system. Currently, governments
295 are working on reopening guidelines. In this unprecedented situation, robotics and AI could play an
296 important role in the safe delivery of surgical services through the use of telesurgery, tele-examination,
297 and tele-training environments. A summary of the existing technologies and required features is given
298 in Table 1.

299 Regarding teleoperated robotic surgery, it should be noted that although there is a wide range of benefit
300 for both patients and the surgeons, there still exist a spectrum of challenges which are open topics for
301 research and development. Regarding benefits, in the context of laparoscopic surgery, it can be
302 mentioned that besides reduced operation time, reduced blood loss, increased accuracy, and reduced
303 recovery time, there are additional benefits that are more pronounced during the pandemic, including
304 reduced time and frequency of interpersonal interaction between surgical staff, reduced number of
305 staff, reduced interaction between patients and staff, all to reduce the risk of infection transfer and
306 increase the safety of surgical procedures (Kimmig et al., 2020; Tavakoli et al., 2020). It should be
307 noted that the current state of telesurgery and robotics-assisted surgery are advanced for abdominal
308 surgery; however, for some categories such as orthopedic surgery, teleoperation has not been
309 considered as a robust option. During the pandemic, any technology that reduces the duration of
310 surgery directly or indirectly (for example, by increasing the accuracy which reduces the need for
311 readjustments) can significantly reduce the chances of infection transmission. This is critical since, in
312 general, surgeons operate on many patients in a short time, which can increase the risk of infection
313 even between patients indirectly through their surgeon.

314 However, it should be noted that there is a wide range of challenges which have not been addressed
315 yet, especially in the context of teleoperated surgery, and these for the future direction of research. One
316 of the major challenges is the stability and transparency of force-feedback teleoperated robotic systems
317 (Atashzar et al., 2017a; Aziminejad et al., 2008; Ryu et al., 2010). Due to the concerns of safety the
318 existing commercialized telerobotic surgical systems, such as the da Vinci surgical system, do not
319 enable force reflection, even though it is known that force reflection can significantly increase the
320 quality of surgery by providing a much higher situational awareness for surgeons. Although a number
321 of stabilizers and control algorithms have been reported in the literature, the existing algorithms result
322 in deviation of motion tracking and force reflection, which reduces the accuracy of surgery and is often
323 not acceptable (Artigas et al., 2010; Atashzar et al., 2017b; Chawda et al., 2015; Panzirsch et al., 2019;
324 Singh et al., 2019). Besides stability, instrumentation is another challenge. Attaching inexpensive,
325 disposable, biocompatible, and miniaturizable force sensors to surgical tools for measuring
326 multidimensional forces for reflection through a teleoperation medium is a major instrumentation
327 challenge and an open line of research (Atashzar et al., 2018). Technologies such as optical force
328 sensors are promising options and are the front line of research in this regard.

329 In addition, the introduction of AI in telesurgery is a new field of research and development which has
330 attracted a great deal of interest in order to enable parts of surgical tasks to be automated, thereby
331 reducing some cognitive and physical burden for the surgical team with the potential for reducing the
332 operation time, increasing accuracy and reducing the number of needed staff in the operating room.
333 The accuracy resulting from using AI in industrial applications has been shown; however, more
334 research is required to prove its performance and build up confidence in the medical area (Wall et al.,
335 2020). Dealing with soft tissue is the main challenge when involving AI in the context of robotic and
336 telerobotic surgery.

337 Regarding tele-examination, telepresence robots have been effective in improving post-operative
338 patient-surgeon interactions and monitoring patient's vital signs, mostly in ICUs. However, due to
339 limitations, effective solutions for detailed pre- and post-operative tele-examination of patients have
340 not been proposed in the literature. One of the main challenges in this area is the development of
341 portable sensorized robots for detailed remote monitoring of patient's signs. On the other hand, AI
342 would be particularly useful in automating tele-examination devices to reduce the need for in-person
343 pre- and post-operative examinations.

344 As for tele-training, simulation-based training systems using AR and HoST have provided a context
 345 for pre-clinical training while ensuring the safety of trainees and experts. In addition, simulation-based
 346 training can be effective in ensuring skill levels of surgeons in the presence of long periods of surgical
 347 inactivity. However, there are open areas for research in this field. Hand-over-hand training using
 348 multilateral teleoperation is one of the future research areas that can profoundly improve the quality of
 349 clinical surgical tele-training. The stability of delayed multilateral teleoperation and effective methods
 350 for sharing control between an expert and a trainee are directions for future researches (Shahbazi et al.,
 351 2018a, 2018b). Besides hand-over-hand training, employment of AI for surgical skill training and
 352 assessment are open research areas.

353 In this perspective article, we have provided our opinions on some existing technologies which can be
 354 adopted rapidly to help with the current unprecedented situation and have given a perspective of the
 355 technologies required in hospitals. The intention in writing this article has been to initiate discussions
 356 between researchers, policymakers, and stakeholders to further investigate the use of robotic,
 357 telerobotic and AI-based solutions in a framework for enhancing the performance of surgery, surgical
 358 training, post-operative treatment, and monitoring under the severe restrictions imposed by COVID-
 359 19. The vision and opinions presented in this article are based on an extensive review of the literature
 360 concerning approaches through which Robotics and AI can play a significant role.

361 **6 Conflict of Interest**

362 *The authors declare that the research was conducted without any commercial or financial*
 363 *relationships that could be construed as potential conflicts of interest.*

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365

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625 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s42256-020-00238-2>
- 626 **Table 1. Existing technologies and required features in telesurgery, tele-examination, and tele-**
627 **training**

	Current Existing Technologies Translated into Practice	Required Missing Features for Performance Improvement
Telesurgery	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unidirectional teleoperation. <i>pros</i>: better ergonomcy; physical separation; less bedside staff; shorter hospital stay; less abdominal pressure; simpler surgical smoke handling; automated data recording. <i>cons</i>: lack of force feedback in the loop; limited types of surgeries. • Visual and other modalities of force feedback. <i>pros</i>: better diagnosis in teleoperation and less tissue damage while avoiding instability. <i>cons</i>: not as effective as direct haptic feedback. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Transparent direct haptic feedback. • Increased capability to include more types of surgeries. • Reduce the cost of robots to increase accessibility. • Development of shared autonomy between surgeons and robots. • Automating simple tasks using AI to augment the performance, fluency and consistency of the surgery while reducing the need for interpersonal interaction.

<p style="text-align: center;">Tele-examination</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Telemedicine systems through voice and video conferencing. <i>pros</i>: no need for hospital attendance; minimizing the risk for patients to come into contact with the source of infection; minimizing the need for traveling to clinics enhancing the accessibility; allowing for more-frequent visits; better digital platform for tracking records and conditions. <i>cons</i>: not as effective as in-person examination in many cases due to limitations on conducting physical exams. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Automated triage using AI. • Portable examination system for pre- and post-surgery. • Telepresence robots in ICU and patients' houses for tele-physical examination. • Advanced automated wearable systems for tracking patient's vital signs and physical ability.
<p style="text-align: center;">Tele-training</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Online learning systems. <i>pros</i>: following up the theoretical aspects of surgical training during lockdown; minimize the need for in-person attendance. <i>cons</i>: lack of experimental training. • VR robotic surgery simulation systems. <i>pros</i>: effective experimental training for students while minimizing the risk of making mistakes in actual surgery and minimizing students risk of infection. <i>cons</i>: not as effective as actual wet lab training. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hands-on-Surgical Training through dual-console telesurgery systems. • A portable hands-on robotic module to provide consistency in surgical training. • Accurate surgical skill evaluation system using AI and actual saved telesurgery data.

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