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Chapter Title	Classification and Differential Analysis of Groin Pain Syndrome	
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Abstract

It is never banal, before tackling a subject so controversial as the groin pain (GP), to remember that with this term—as on the other hand also as it regards all the other terms as athletic groin, groin disruption, osteitis pubis, etc. expressing the same kind of symptoms—we mean only the description of a symptom or better of a cohort of symptoms that the patient complains at the level of the pubic area. For this reason, we should be extremely careful not to identify the term GP (or any other term up to now considered as equivalent) and diagnosis. In fact, the GP has a multifactorial pathogenesis where often different clinical frameworks overlap, making sometimes the diagnosis a real diagnostic challenge. Objectively, it must be acknowledged that the anatomical complexity of the pubic region certainly does not facilitate the adoption of a clear nosological terminology. The multiple anatomical structures that may be involved are so numerous as to preclude, in fact, a comprehensive nomenclature [1], unless, as already pointed out, the term of GP is intended only as a description of a cohort of symptoms and not misunderstood with the diagnosis itself. Indeed, unfortunately, this simple and basic concept seems to be often overlooked in the specific literature. This lack of clarity uniqueness concerning terminology can be explained, but not of course justified, by the fact that since the symptoms reported by the patient can result from skeletal muscular, gastrointestinal, urogenital, neurological and gynaecological problems [2, 3], the risk for the clinician to use different terminologies is high. The fact is that the terminology is often confusing and sometimes dichotomous, a situation that creates a lot of difficulties of interpretation. Furthermore, there are objectively considerable difficulties in finding and interpreting the results reported by various studies. In this regard, a paradigmatic example is provided by Serner et al. [4] that in their systematic review emphasizes the need to standardize the terminology used in order to facilitate the comparison of results derived from the different studies present in literature. Not surprisingly, to reinforce this need, in their review, the authors included 72 studies, in which they found 33 different diagnostic terms. Recently, the “Agreement Meeting on Definitions and Terminology on Groin Pain in Athletes” held in Doha (Q) in November 2014 [5] was aimed to standardize the clinical terms used for GP.

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Classification and Differential Analysis of Groin Pain Syndrome

Gian Nicola Bisciotti and Piero Volpi

1.1 Introduction

[5AU2](#) It is never banal, before tackling a subject so controversial as the groin pain (GP), to remember that with this term—as on the other hand also as it regards all the other terms as athletic groin, groin disruption, osteitis pubis, etc. expressing the same kind of symptoms—we mean only the description of a symptom or better of a cohort of symptoms that the patient complains at the level of the pubic area. For this reason, we should be extremely careful not to identify the term GP (or any other term up to now considered as equivalent) and diagnosis. In fact, the GP has a multifactorial pathogenesis where often different clinical frameworks overlap, making sometimes the diagnosis a real diagnostic challenge. Objectively, it must be acknowledged that the anatomical complexity of the pubic region certainly does not facilitate the adoption of a clear nosological terminology. The multiple anatomical structures that may be involved are so numer-

ous as to preclude, in fact, a comprehensive nomenclature [1], unless, as already pointed out, the term of GP is intended only as a description of a cohort of symptoms and not misunderstood with the diagnosis itself. Indeed, unfortunately, this simple and basic concept seems to be often overlooked in the specific literature. This lack of clarity uniqueness concerning terminology can be explained, but not of course justified, by the fact that since the symptoms reported by the patient can result from skeletal muscular, gastrointestinal, urogenital, neurological and gynaecological problems [2, 3], the risk for the clinician to use different terminologies is high. The fact is that the terminology is often confusing and sometimes dichotomous, a situation that creates a lot of difficulties of interpretation. Furthermore, there are objectively considerable difficulties in finding and interpreting the results reported by various studies. In this regard, a paradigmatic example is provided by Serner et al. [4] that in their systematic review emphasizes the need to standardize the terminology used in order to facilitate the comparison of results derived from the different studies present in literature. Not surprisingly, to reinforce this need, in their review, the authors included 72 studies, in which they found 33 different diagnostic terms. Recently, the “Agreement Meeting on Definitions and Terminology on Groin Pain in Athletes” held in Doha (Q) in November 2014 [5] was aimed to standardize the clinical terms used for GP.

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57 **1.2 The Groin Pain Syndrome**
 58 **Italian Consensus**
 59 **Classification**

60 The first Groin Pain Italian Consensus held in
 61 Milan February 5, 2016, was an invitation con-
 62 sensus conference attended by orthopaedics,
 63 sports physicians, general surgeons, radiologists,
 64 physiatrists, sport physiologists, physiothera-
 65 pists and physical trainers that was aimed to
 66 approve three separate documents concerning
 67 the GP:

- 68 1. Diagnostic taxonomy document consensus
- 69 2. Clinical semeiotics document consensus
- 70 3. Imaging document consensus

71 Each document was first presented by a facili-
 72 tator; the presentation was then followed by a
 73 plenary discussion directed by a chairman. After
 74 each discussion followed a vote. The first docu-
 75 ment has required 15 different discussions and
 76 the same number of votes, while the second and
 77 the third document required six discussions and
 78 votes. During the discussions, the document was
 79 eventually changed and was then voted only the
 80 final version. All votes are passed unanimously.

81 **1.2.1 Summary of the First**
 82 **Document: Diagnostic**
 83 **Taxonomy Document**
 84 **Consensus**

85 The first vote concerned the use of the term groin
 86 pain syndrome (GPS). The use of the term “syn-
 87 drome” is justified by the frequent overlapping of
 88 different clinical frameworks and by the possible
 89 cause-effect interaction that characterize a well-
 90 defined GP clinical framework [6–8]. Obviously, the
 91 term GPS is an “umbrella term” that must necessar-
 92 ily be complemented by the clinical framework
 93 description. You may then, for example, have a GPS

caused by adductor tendinopathy, or from inguinal 94
 hernia, or by a combination of these as of other 95
 pathologies. Therefore, it is our opinion that only 96
 adopting a comprehensive descriptive term, as GPS, 97
 and associating it with the clinical and taxonomic 98
 description of the disease, or diseases, responsible 99
 for the symptomatology reported by the patient, we 100
 can arrive to have a clear and rational identification 101
 of the problem. Then it was then proposed and 102
 approved the following definition of GPS: 103

*Every clinical situation complained by the patient 104
 at the level of the inguinal-pubic area that affects 105
 the sporting activities and/or interferes negatively 106
 in activities of daily living (ADL) and requiring 107
 medical attention 108*

Furthermore, based on the synthesis of differ- 109
 ent studies [5, 9–17], we propose that the clinical 110
 frameworks that can be the cause of occurrence 111
 of GPS can be subdivided into 11 different cate- 112
 gories as follows: 113

- 114 **1. Articular causes**
- (a) Acetabular labrum tear 115
- (b) Femoroacetabular impingement^(I) 116
- (c) HALTAR lesion^(II) 117
- (d) Hip osteoarthritis 118
- (e) Intra-articular loose bodies 119
- (f) Hip instability 120
- (g) Adhesive capsulitis 121
- (h) Legg-Calvé-Perthes disease and its 122
 outcomes 123
- (i) Dysplasia and its outcomes 124
- (j) Epiphysiolysis and its outcomes 125
- (k) Avascular necrosis of the femoral head 126
- (l) Sacroiliac joint disorders 127
- (m) Lumbar column disorders 128
- (n) Synovitis 129

- Notes:* 130
- (I) Cam-Fai, Pincer-Fai, subspine impinge- 131
 ment (or AIIS, anterior inferior iliac spine 132
 impingement). 133
 - (II) Hip anterosuperior labral tear with avul- 134
 sion of the rectus femoris. 135

136	2. Visceral causes	(m) Bursitis ^(II)	179
137	(a) Inguinal hernia ^(I)	(n) Weakness of the inguinal canal wall ^(III)	180
138	(b) Other types of abdominal hernia	<i>Notes:</i>	181
139	(c) Intestinal diseases	(I) Iliopsoas impingement with the medial	182
140	<i>Note:</i>	portion of the acetabular rim.	183
141	(I) Concerning inguinal hernia, it is recom-	(II) Substantially concerning of the ileo-pec-	184
142	ended to adopt the classification pro-	tineal bursa and the greater trochanter	185
143	posed by the European Hernia Society.	sero-mucous bursa.	186
144	3. Bone causes	(III) It's important to underline the four most	187
145	(a) Fractures and their outcomes	important clinical signs of the inguinal	188
146	(b) Stress fractures ^(I)	canal wall weakness: tenderness to the	189
147	(c) Avulsion fractures ^(II)	exploration of the inguinal canal, tender-	190
148	(d) Iliac crest contusion (hip pointers) ^(III)	ness on palpation at the level of the pubic	191
149	<i>Notes:</i>	tubercle, superficial inguinal ring dilata-	192
150	(I) Substantially concerning the pubic branch	tion and pain on palpation at the level of	193
151	or the femoral neck.	origin of the adductor muscles. In addition,	194
152	(II) Mainly the childhood avulsion fractures	an anamnestic index of extreme impor-	195
153	involving the anterior inferior iliac spine	tance is a history of failure of conservative	196
154	(AIIS), the anterior superior iliac spine	treatment.	197
155	(ASIS) and the apophyseal nucleus of	5. Pubic symphysis-related causes	198
156	the ischial tuberosity (ANIT).	(a) Osteitis pubis	199
157	(III) The iliac crest contusion or hip pointers	(b) Symphysis instability ^(I)	200
158	are the result of direct trauma at the level	(c) Symphysis degenerative arthropathy	201
159	of the iliac crest which causes the forma-	<i>Note:</i>	202
160	tion of a periosteal haematoma. Such a	(I) the radiological sign of symphysis insta-	203
161	haematoma can compress the lateral	bility is represented by an asymmetry of	204
162	nerve femoro-cutaneous nerve and cause	pubic branches greater than 3 mm visible	205
163	paresthesia symptoms.	in the Flamingo view X-ray.	206
164	4. Muscle-tendon causes	6. Neurological causes^(I)	207
165	(a) Rectus abdominis injuries	(a) Nerve entrapment syndrome ^(II)	208
166	(b) Rectus abdominis tendinopathy	<i>Notes:</i>	209
167	(c) Adductor muscles injuries	(I) The category "neurological causes"	210
168	(d) Adductor tendinopathy	should be divided into two further subcat-	211
169	(e) Rectus abdominis—adductor longus	egories. In the first category, they are the	212
170	common aponeurosis injuries	neurological damage due to overloading	213
171	(f) Iliopsoas injuries	or overstretching (neurological causes	214
172	(g) Iliopsoas tendinopathy	category A). In the second category, they	215
173	(h) Other indirect muscle injuries and their	are the neurological damage due to an	216
174	outcomes	acute compression mechanism or tear of	217
175	(i) Direct muscle injuries	nerve structure (neurological causes cat-	218
176	(j) Iliopsoas impingement ^(I)	egory B).	219
177	(k) Snapping internal hip	(II) Substantially concerning the femoro-	220
178	(l) Snapping external hip	cutaneous nerve, genitofemoral nerve	221

222 (genital branch), ilioinguinal nerve, ilio-
223 hypogastric nerve, femoral nerve and
224 obturator nerve.

225 **7. Developmental causes**

- 226 (a) Apophysitis^(I)
- 227 (b) Growth plate at pubic level^(II)

228 *Notes:*

- 229 (I) Substantially concerning the AIIS and
230 the ASIS.
- 231 (II) Below the age of 20 years is common to
232 observe anteromedial foci of endochondral
233 ossification centres. These findings become
234 particularly evident in arthro-IMR [18].

235 **8. Genitourinary disease-related causes**
236 **(inflammatory and not)**

- 237 (a) Prostatitis
- 238 (b) Epididymitis
- 239 (c) Funiculitis
- 240 (d) Orchitis
- 241 (e) Varicocele
- 242 (f) Hydrocele
- 243 (g) Urethritis
- 244 (h) Other infections of the urinary tract
- 245 (i) Cystitis
- 246 (j) Ovarian cysts
- 247 (k) Endometriosis
- 248 (l) Ectopic pregnancy
- 249 (m) Round ligament entrapment
- 250 (n) Testicular/ovarian torsion
- 251 (o) Ureteral lithiasis

252 **9. Neoplastic causes**

- 253 (a) Testicular carcinoma
- 254 (b) Osteoid osteoma
- 255 (c) Other carcinomas

256 **10. Infectious causes**

- 257 (a) Osteomyelitis
- 258 (b) Septic arthritis

259 **11. Systemic causes**

- 260 (a) Inguinal lymphadenopathy
- 261 (b) Rheumatic diseases

262 After a deep examination and discussion concern-
263 ing the literature, we propose to subdivide
264 the most common and probable diseases that can
265 cause GPS in 11 different nosological categories
266 including 63 possible different clinical frame-
267 works (Table 1.1).

Table 1.1 The most likely causes of GPS (63) grouped into 11 different nosological categories

Categories	Number of pathology
Articular causes	14
Visceral causes	3
Bone causes	4
Muscle-tendon causes	14
Pubic symphysis-related causes	3
Neurological causes	1
Developmental causes	2
Genitourinary disease-related causes (inflammatory and not)	15
Neoplastic causes	3
Infectious causes	2
Systemic causes	2
Total	11 63

268 Into the last part of the first document, the
269 consensus approved a further subdivision of the
270 GPS in three main categories, based both on the
271 aetiopathogenesis and the timing of onset/disap-
272 pearance of the clinical framework:

- 273 1. The GPS of traumatic origin, in which the
274 onset of pain was due to a precise traumatic
275 event and this hypothesis is supported by the
276 anamnestic investigation, by clinical exami-
277 nation and imaging.
- 278 2. The GPS due to functional overload, charac-
279 terized by insidious and progressive onset, in
280 which the patient has no memory of trauma or
281 a situation to which is attributed with certainty
282 the onset of pain symptoms.
- 283 3. The long-standing GPS (LSGPS) or chronic
284 GPS, in which the cohort of symptoms com-
285 plained by the patient continues for a long
286 period and is recalcitrant to any conservative
287 therapy. It's important to underline the fact
288 that both the functional overload GPS and
289 the traumatic origin GPS may hesitate in a
290 LSGPS. Similarly, a traumatic GPS can
291 occur in a previous framework of GPS by
292 overuse and/or LSGPS. We can consider in
293 this category a clinical framework that has
294 continued for more than 12 weeks. Finally, it
295 is interesting to underline that a situation of

296 LSGPS is typically most commonly encountered in an amateur athlete rather than in a
 297 professional athlete. This can be reasonably
 298 explained by the fact that an amateur athlete
 299 does not have the same access opportunities
 300 to a professional athlete to have a suitable
 301 therapeutic procedure, either conservative or
 302 surgical.
 303

304 Therefore, a correct formulation of the diagnosis, corresponding to the concepts stated above,
 305 should respect the following formulation: “traumatic GPS caused by...” or “overuse GPS caused
 306 by...” or “LSGPS caused by ...”.

307 Finally, we underline the concept that, given
 308 the anatomical complexity of the pubic region,
 309 especially the GPS due to functional overload
 310 and the LSGPS can often be caused by the association of more diseases. In the case of a type of
 311 GPS caused by the association of more diseases,
 312 the diagnosis formulation will change in “traumatic or overuse GPS, or LSGPS caused by the
 313 association of ...”.

318 **1.2.2 Summary of the Second Document: Clinical Semeiotics Document Consensus**
 319
 320

321 Before describing the second document concerning the semiotics, we would like to recall briefly
 322 the GPS cluster of signs and symptoms.
 323

324 It is estimated that a percentage between 5
 325 and 18% of athletes ask medical attention caused
 326 by an activity-restricting GPS [10, 19–21].
 327 Within the same sport played, males had greater
 328 GPS incidence than females with a RR equal to
 329 2.45 [5].

330 In the patient affected by GPS, the symptoms
 331 are bilateral in 12% of the cases; it involves the
 332 adductor region in 40% of the cases and the perineal region in 6% of the cases: The symptom
 333 usually begins unilateral and becomes with the
 334 progress of time bilateral [20–26]. The pain
 335 onset occurs insidiously in 2/3 of patients and
 336 acutely in the remaining 1/3, a certain number of
 337 patients refers an acute event after a clinical
 338

framework of GPS or LSGPS was already present [20, 22, 26–29]. The clinical framework is
 339 characterized by subjective and objective symptoms. Subjective symptoms are mainly represented
 340 by pain and functional deficits [30, 31].
 341 From an objective point of view, the patient may complain pain on palpation, during countered
 342 muscle contraction and during passive and active stretching. The clinical examination must therefore
 343 be based on a series of tests focused on muscle contractions (isometric, concentric and eccentric),
 344 on the active and passive stretching manoeuvres [32–36] and on the palpation of some specific
 345 anatomical areas [14, 37–40].
 346 Thus, basing both on the examination of the literature and on expert opinion of the specialists
 347 present was approved a second document concerning the clinical examination. The clinical
 348 exams approved and recommended during the consensus were categorized in four categories as
 349 follows.
 350

351 **1.2.2.1 First Category: Specific Test for Abductor Muscles**
 352
 353

- 354 1. Palpation of the pubic branch at common rectus abdominis/adductor longus common
 355 aponeurosis
 356
- 357 2. Isometric squeeze test with proximal resistance (at knee level)
 358
- 359 3. Isometric squeeze test with distal resistance (at ankles level)
 360
- 361 4. Isometric squeeze test with distal resistance and apart legs
 362
- 363 5. Isometric squeeze with flexed leg and proximal resistance
 364
- 365 6. Isometric squeeze test in monopodalic execution with the use of a dynamometer^(I)
 366

367 *Note:*

- 368 (I) Optional test but in any case strongly recommended especially in the case of unilateral
 369 pain symptomatology.
 370

371 **1.2.2.2 Second Category: Specific Test for Abdominal Muscles**
 372
 373

- 374 1. Palpation of the pubic branch at common rectus abdominis/adductor longus common
 375 aponeurosis
 376

384	2. Rectus abdominis eccentric test	literature [11, 42–58] and on expert opinion of	426
385	3. Sit-up pain test	the specialists present was approved a second	427
386	4. Obliquus abdominis eccentric test	document concerning the imaging assessment	428
		which is composed by the following routine	429
387	1.2.2.3 Third Category: Specific Test	examinations:	430
388	for the Hip Joint		
389	1. Hip joint intra- and extra-rotation measurement	1. <i>X-ray examination</i>	431
390	2. Flexion abduction external rotation (FABER)	The radiography routinely discussed and	432
391	test	approved includes the following exams:	433
392	3. Dynamic internal rotatory impingement test	(a) Anterior posterior view in upright posi-	434
393	(DIRIT)	tion (AP1)	435
394	4. Dynamic external rotatory impingement test	(b) Anterior posterior view in upright position	436
395	(DEXRIT)	and alternately on one foot (Flamingo	437
396	5. Posterior rim impingement test	view) (AP2)	438
397	6. Lateral rim impingement test	(c) Dunn view (D)	439
398	1.2.2.4 Fourth Category Clinical	From the radiographic assessment, it is recom-	440
399	Evaluation of Inguinal Diseases	ended to obtain the following information:	441
400	Palpation and clinical evaluation of the following	(a) Presence of cross sign (AP1)	442
401	anatomical structures:	(b) Enlargement and /or erosion and/or scler-	443
402	1. Tuberculum pubis	osis of the symphysis (AP1)	444
403	2. Crista pubis	(c) Symphysis asymmetry greater than 3 mm	445
404	3. Linea pectinea	(AP2)	446
405	4. Superior ramus pubis	(d) Calculation of alfa angle (D)	447
406	5. Anulus inguinalis superficialis	2. <i>US examination</i>	448
407	6. Pilastrum infero-lateralis	The US examination must provide the fol-	449
408	7. Pilastrum supero-medialis	lowing assessments:	450
409	Furthermore, as part of the second consensus	(a) Assessment of the muscle-tendon unit of	451
410	document, it has approved the use, during the med-	the abdomen and adductor muscles	452
411	ical history process, of the HAGOS patient-	(b) Dynamic assessment for the inguinal	453
412	reported outcome measures in its validated Italian	canal structures	454
413	form [41].	(c) Assessment of internal organs	455
414	1.2.3 Summary of the Second	(d) Assessment of the urinary tract and of	456
415	Document: Imaging	the external genitalia	457
416	Document Consensus	Finally, during the execution of the US examina-	458
417	The third document discussed and approved dur-	tion, the contemporary presence of the radiolo-	459
418	ing the consensus involved the imaging exams.	gist and the general surgeon is strongly	460
419	They were considered the protocols regarding the	suggested.	461
420	conventional radiology (X-ray), ultrasound		
421	examination (US) and magnetic resonance imag-	3. <i>MRI evaluation</i>	462
422	ing (MRI). It was not made no division between	Concerning the MRI evaluation, the use of	463
423	first and second level exams, because it was con-	a device of at least 1.5 T and a no-contrast	464
424	sidered that each exam has specific peculiarities.	protocol is recommended. The acquisition	465
425	Therefore, basing both on the examination of the	plans recommended are:	466
		(a) Coronal	467
		(b) Sagittal	468
		(c) Axial	469

470	(d) Axial oblique	Rectus abdominis muscle-tendon injury to assess	516
471	(e) Coronal oblique	into the axial oblique sequences PD FS and T2	517
472	(f) Sagittal oblique	FS, as well in coronal STIR	518
473	The acquisition sequences recommended are:	Growth plate at pubic symphysis level to estimate	519
474	(a) T1	in axial T1 sequences.	520
475	(b) T2 and T2 fat saturated (T2 FS)	Furthermore, it was remembered the ana-	521
476	(c) STIR	tomical importance of the pre-aponeurotic	522
477	(d) Proton density fat saturation (PD FS)	fibrocartilaginous complex (PAFC). The PAFC	523
478	Furthermore, into the third document, the con-	is formed by the interconnection of the tendons	524
479	sensus suggested the radiological findings of	of the adductor muscles and rectus femoris	525
480	major interest:	muscle and is included and integrated with the	526
481	The presence of bone marrow oedema (BMO)	para-symphysarius ligaments and with the	527 AU6
482	at pubis symphysis level. The presence of	inguinal canal structures. Moreover, it is impor-	528
483	BMO must be identified into the sequences	tant to consider that the PAFC is in anatomical	529
484	coronal STIR, coronal T1 and axial oblique	continuity with the symphysis central disc [59].	530
485	T2 FS and PD FS. Furthermore, BMO must	This complex anatomical structure represents a	531
486	also be classified in I°, II° or III° in rela-	real anchoring central point and is therefore	532
487	tionship of its extension measured into the	essentially formed by the interconnection of the	533
488	PD FS or T2 FS axial oblique plan	fibres of the adductor muscles, the rectus	534
489	sequences.	abdominis, the external and internal oblique	535
490	Fatty infiltration within the BMO around the joint	muscle, the inguinal ligament, the anterior	536
491	symphysis to verify into the coronal STIR,	pubic ligament, the arcuate ligament and the	537
492	coronal T1 and axial oblique T2 and PD FS	fibrocartilage symphysary disc. The acceptance	538
493	sequences.	of this anatomical concept presupposes two	539
494	Symphysis sclerosis to asses in coronal T1 and	fundamental points: the first one is represented	540
495	axial oblique T1 images.	by the fact that the verification of the anatomi-	541
496	High signal intensity para-symphysary line to	cal integrity PAFC is a central point of imaging	542
497	verify in coronal STIR, axial oblique PD FS	exam and plays a crucial role in the formulation	543
498	and sagittal STIR sequences.	of the diagnosis, while the second point is the	544
499	Secondary inferior and/or superior cleft sign to	necessity to consider the “anatomical continu-	545
500	assess in coronal STIR, axial oblique PD FS	ity” of the pubic symphysis, both of its superfi-	546
501	and sagittal STIR sequences.	cial and deep anatomical structures and its	547
502	Subchondral cysts/irregularities of the articular	functional continuity.	548
503	surface to verify in coronal STIR and axial		
504	oblique images.		
505	Symphysis central disc protrusion to estimate in	Conclusions	549
506	coronal T1 and axial oblique T1 sequences.	From the first GPS Italian consensus, some	550
507	Adductor longus tendinopathy to assess into the	important points of discussion and reflection	551
508	axial oblique sequences PD FS, T2 FS and T1,	that we can summarize as follows emerged:	552
509	as well as in coronal T1 sequences.	The controversy as regards the GPS diagnos-	553
510	Adductor longus muscle-tendon injury to	tic taxonomy can only be solved through	554
511	evaluate into the axial oblique sequences	the adoption of a common language, which	555
512	PD FS and T2 FS, as well as coronal STIR	satisfies the principles of clarity, fairness	556
513	images.	and sharability.	557
514	Rectus abdominis tendinopathy to consider in	The adoption of a diagnostic pathway both from	558
515	sagittal STIR and axial oblique PD FS.	clinical point of view that concerning the	559
		imaging is a first step towards harmonizing	560
		and rationalizing the approach to	561

562 GPS. Obviously, such “guided” pathway
563 does not limit the clinician professional skill,
564 but rather it is a guide that would facilitate the
565 formulation of definitive diagnosis, enabling
566 this latter to be based on well-defined clinical
567 diagnostic steps. Furthermore, the use of
568 HAGOS questionnaire provides us the ability
569 to objectively quantify the therapeutic effec-
570 tiveness of the proposed procedures.

571 A standardized MRI protocol would facilitate
572 the comparison of data from different
573 study groups and substantially would
574 favour the logical-deductive process that is
575 the basis of the diagnostic path. In any
576 case, it would require further and more
577 detailed studies to clarify the true signifi-
578 cance of some radiological findings that
579 we can observe in a GPS framework.

580 Finally, the small number of female subjects
581 observed in the studies present into the lit-
582 erature could theoretically be a limitation
583 in the applicability of the data described
584 above in a female population.

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Author Queries

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Queries	Details Required	Author's Response
AU1	Please check and confirm if the affiliations are presented correctly.	
AU2	Please check the hierarchy of the section headings and confirm if correct.	
AU3	Please check and confirm if the sentence "It's important to underline the four..." is fine as edited.	
AU4	Please check if edit to sentence starting "Into the last part..." is okay.	
AU5	Please check and confirm if "It's important to underline the fact..." is fine as edited.	
AU6	Please check if "symphysarius" should be changed to "symphysis".	

Uncorrected Proof