

Schwartz's PRINCIPLES OF SURGERY

ELEVENTH EDITION | VOLUME 1



F. CHARLES BRUNICARDI

Dana K. Andersen • Timothy R. Billiar • David L. Dunn • John G. Hunter
Lillian S. Kao • Jeffrey B. Matthews • Raphael E. Pollock

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Schwartz's Principles of Surgery

Eleventh Edition

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Editor-in-Chief

F. Charles Brunicaudi, MD, FACS

John Howard Endowed Professor of Pancreatic Surgery
Chair, Department of Surgery
Director, Cancer Program
University of Toledo College of Medicine and Life Sciences
Academic Chief of Surgery
ProMedica Health System
Toledo, Ohio

Associate Editors

Dana K. Andersen, MD, FACS

Scientific Program Manager
Division of Digestive Diseases and Nutrition
National Institute of Diabetes and Digestive and Kidney Diseases
National Institutes of Health
Bethesda, Maryland

Timothy R. Billiar, MD, FACS

George Vance Foster Professor and Chair
Department of Surgery
University of Pittsburgh School of Medicine
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

David L. Dunn, MD, PhD

Prospect, Kentucky

John G. Hunter, MD, FACS, FRCS Edin(Hon.)

Executive Vice President and CEO,
OHSU Health System
Mackenzie Professor of Surgery, School of Medicine
Oregon Health and Science University
Portland, Oregon

Lillian S. Kao, MD, MS

Jack H. Mayfield, MD, Chair in Surgery
Vice-Chair of Research and Faculty Development
Vice-Chair for Quality of Care
Professor and Chief, Division of Acute Care Surgery
Department of Surgery
McGovern Medical School at the University of
Texas Health Science Center at Houston
Houston, Texas

Jeffrey B. Matthews, MD, FACS

Dallas B. Phemister Professor
Chair, Department of Surgery
Surgeon-in-Chief
The University of Chicago Pritzker School of
Medicine
Chicago, Illinois

Raphael E. Pollock, MD, PhD, FACS

Director, The Ohio State University Comprehensive
Cancer Center
Professor of Surgery; Kathleen Klotz Chair in
Cancer Research
The Ohio State University Wexner Medical Center
Columbus, Ohio

Volume 2



New York Chicago San Francisco Athens London Madrid Mexico City
Milan New Delhi Singapore Sydney Toronto

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Contributors

Darren B. Abbas, MD

Clinical Instructor
Department of Surgery
University of Toledo College of Medicine and
Life Sciences
Toledo, Ohio
Chapter 9, Wound Healing

Marcus Adair, MD

Clinical Instructor
Department of Surgery
University of Toledo College of Medicine and
Life Sciences
Toledo, Ohio
Chapter 52, Ambulatory Surgery

Oliver Adunka, MD, FACS

Professor
Vice-Chair, Clinical Operations
Department of Otolaryngology-Head and Neck Surgery
Director, Division of Otolaryngology/Neurotology and Cranial
Base Surgery
The Ohio State University-James Comprehensive
Cancer Center
Columbus, Ohio
Chapter 18, Disorders of the Head and Neck

Louis H. Alarcon, MD, FACS, FCCM

Professor of Surgery and Critical Care Medicine
Medical Director, Division of Trauma Surgery
University of Pittsburgh
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
Chapter 13, Physiologic Monitoring of the Surgical Patient

Heitham Albeshri, MD

Clinical Instructor
Department of Surgery
University of Toledo College of Medicine and Life Sciences
Toledo, Ohio
Chapter 9, Wound Healing

Gary An, MD

Professor of Surgery
Department of Surgery
The University of Chicago Medicine
Chicago, Illinois
*Chapter 51, Understanding, Evaluating, and Using
Evidence for Surgical Practice*

Dana K. Andersen, MD, FACS

Scientific Program Manager
Division of Digestive Diseases and Nutrition
National Institute of Diabetes and Digestive and
Kidney Diseases
National Institutes of Health
Bethesda, Maryland
Chapter 33, Pancreas

Jeffrey H. Anderson, MD

Resident, Department of Surgery
Harborview Medical Center
Seattle, Washington
Chapter 8, Burns

Carol A. Angel, MD

Clinical Instructor
Department of Surgery
University of Toledo College of Medicine and
Life Sciences
Toledo, Ohio
Chapter 9, Wound Healing

Peter A. Angelos, MD, PhD, FACS

Linda Kohler Anderson Professor of Surgery and
Surgical Ethics
Chief, Endocrine Surgery
Associate Director
MacLean Center for Clinical Medical Ethics
The University of Chicago Medicine
Chicago, Illinois
*Chapter 48, Ethics, Palliative Care, and Care at the
End of Life*

Peter B. Angood, MD, CPE, FRCS(C), FACS, MCCM

President and Chief Executive Officer
American Association for Physician Leadership
Tampa, Florida
*Chapter 12, Quality, Patient Safety, Assessments of Care,
and Complications*

Glen S. Van Arsdell, MD

Chief, Pediatric Cardiac Surgery
Mattel Children's Hospital
University of California
Los Angeles, California
Chapter 20, Congenital Heart Disease

Stanley W. Ashley, MD

General & Gastrointestinal Surgery
Brigham and Women's Hospital
Frank Sawyer Professor of Surgery
Harvard Medical School
Boston, Massachusetts
Chapter 28, Small Intestine

Ziya Baghmanli, MD

Clinical Instructor
Department of Surgery
University of Toledo Medical Center
Toledo, Ohio
Chapter 37, Inguinal Hernias

Eliza W. Beal

Clinical Instructor, Department of General Surgery
The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio
Chapter 48, Ethics, Palliative Care, and Care at the End of Life

Carlos F. Bechara, MD

Associate Professor of Surgery
Program Director, Vascular Surgery Fellowship
Department of Surgery
Loyola University Medical Center
Maywood, Illinois
Chapter 23, Arterial Disease

Greg J. Beilman, MD

Owen H and Sarah Davidson Wangensteen Chair of
Experimental Surgery
University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, Minnesota
Chapter 6, Surgical Infections

Fara F. Bellows, MD

Clinical Assistant Professor
Department of Urology
The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio
Chapter 40, Urology

Andrew J. Benjamin, MD, MS

The University of Chicago Medicine
Chicago, Illinois
Chapter 51, Understanding, Evaluating, and Using Evidence for Surgical Practice

Shiela Beroukhim, MD

Clinical Instructor
Harbor-UCLA Medical Center
Torrance, California
Chapter 1, Leadership in Surgery

Timothy R. Billiar, MD, FACS

George Vance Foster Professor and Chair
Department of Surgery
University of Pittsburgh School of Medicine
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
Chapter 5, Shock

Kirby I. Bland, MD

Fay Fletcher Kerner Professor
The University of Alabama at Birmingham
Department of Surgery
Birmingham, Alabama
Chapter 17, The Breast

Geoffrey N. Box, MD

Assistant Professor
Department of Urology
The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio
Chapter 40, Urology

F. Charles Brunicaudi, MD, FACS

John Howard Endowed Professor of Pancreatic Surgery
Chair, Department of Surgery
Director, Cancer Program
University of Toledo College of Medicine and
Life Sciences
Academic Chief of Surgery
ProMedica Health System
Toledo, Ohio
Chapter 1, Leadership in Surgery
Chapter 15, Molecular Biology, The Atomic Theory of Disease, and Precision Surgery
Chapter 33, Pancreas
Chapter 37, Inguinal Hernias
Chapter 52, Ambulatory Surgery

Robert E. Bulander, Jr., MD, PhD

Assistant Professor of Surgery
University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, Minnesota
Chapter 6, Surgical Infections

Clay Cothren Burlew, MD, FACS

Professor of Surgery
Director, Surgical Intensive Care Unit
Program Director, Surgical Critical Care Fellowship
Program Director, Trauma & Acute Care Surgery
Fellowship
The Ernest E. Moore Shock Trauma Center
Denver Health Medical Center
University of Colorado School of Medicine
Denver, Colorado
Chapter 7, Trauma

Ronald W. Busuttill, MD, PhD

William P. Longmire, Jr., Chair in Surgery
Professor and Executive Chair
Department of Surgery
David Geffen School of Medicine at University of
California-Los Angeles
Los Angeles, California
Chapter 31, Liver

William E. Carson III, MD, FACS

Professor of Surgery and Vice Chair for Promotion and Tenure

The John B. and Jane T. McCoy Chair in Cancer Research

Interim Chief, Division of Surgical Oncology

Associate Director for Clinical Research

OSU Comprehensive Cancer Center

The Ohio State University

Columbus, Ohio

Chapter 10, Oncology

Rajiv Y. Chandawarkar, MD, MBA

Acting Chair

Department of Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery

The Ohio State University Wexner Medical Center

Columbus Ohio

Chapter 45, Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery

Ronald Chang, MD

Department of Surgery

University of Texas Houston

Houston, Texas

Chapter 4, Hemostasis, Surgical Bleeding, and Transfusion

Changyi Chen, MD, PhD

Professor of Surgery

Michael E. DeBakey Department of Surgery

Baylor College of Medicine

Houston, Texas

Chapter 23, Arterial Disease

Brian H. Cho, MD

Resident in Plastic Surgery

Johns Hopkins Department of Plastic Surgery

Baltimore, Maryland

Chapter 44, Surgery of the Hand and Wrist

Atish Chopra, MD

Fellow, Division of Vascular Surgery

Department of Surgery

Oregon Health & Science University

Portland, Oregon

Chapter 24, Venous and Lymphatic Disease

Orlo H. Clark, MD, FACS

Professor Emeritus, Department of Surgery

UCSF Mt Zion Medical Center

San Francisco, California

Chapter 38, Thyroid, Parathyroid, and Adrenal

Siobhan A. Corbett, MD

Associate Professor of Surgery

Department of Surgery

Rutgers-Robert Wood Johnson Medical School

Rutgers Biomedical and Health Sciences

New Brunswick, New Jersey

Chapter 2, Systemic Response to Injury and Metabolic Support

Joseph S. Coselli, MD

Vice-Chair, Michael E. DeBakey Department of Surgery

Professor, Cullen Foundation Endowed Chair

Chief, Division of Cardiothoracic Surgery

Baylor College of Medicine

Chief, Adult Cardiac Surgery Texas Heart Institute

Chief, Adult Cardiac Surgery Section

Associate Chief, Cardiovascular Service

Baylor St. Luke's Medical Center

Houston, Texas

Chapter 22, Thoracic Aneurysms and Aortic Dissection

Anita P. Courcoulas, MD, MPH, FACS

Professor of Surgery

Section Head, MIS Bariatric & General Surgery

University of Pittsburgh Medical Center

Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

Chapter 27, The Surgical Management of Obesity

Zhigang Cui, MD

Associate Professor of Surgery

Department of Surgery

Tianjin Medical University

Nankai Hospital

Institute of Acute Abdomen of Tianjin,

Tianjin, China

Chapter 50, Optimizing Perioperative Care: Enhanced Recovery and Chinese Medicine

Anthony R. Cyr, MD, PhD

Clinical Instructor

Department of Surgery

University of Pittsburgh School of Medicine

Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

Chapter 13, Physiologic Monitoring of the Surgical Patient

Fadi S. Dahdaleh, MD

Department of Surgery

University of Chicago

Chicago, Illinois

Chapter 30, The Appendix

Ralph J. Damiano, MD

Evarts A. Graham Professor of Surgery

Chief, Division of Cardiothoracic Surgery

Co-Chair, Heart & Vascular Center

Washington University School of Medicine

St Louis, Missouri

Chapter 21, Acquired Heart Disease

Senthil Damodaran, MD, PhD

Assistant Professor

Departments of Breast Medical Oncology and

Investigational Cancer Therapeutics

The University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer Center

Houston, Texas

Chapter 17, The Breast

x Chandan Das, MD
 Clinical Instructor
 Department of Surgery
 University of Toledo College of Medicine and Life Sciences
 Toledo, Ohio
Chapter 37, Inguinal Hernias

Haile T. Debas, MD, FACS
 Maurice Galante Distinguished Professor of Surgery,
 Emeritus
 Founding Executive Director, Global Health Sciences
 Director Emeritus, University of California Global
 Health Institute
 Dean Emeritus, School of Medicine
 Former Chancellor
 University of California, San Francisco
 San Francisco, California
Chapter 49, Global Surgery

Daniel T. Dempsey, MD, FACS
 Professor of Surgery
 Department of Surgery
 Perelman School of Medicine
 University of Pennsylvania
 Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
Chapter 26, Stomach

Catherine R. deVries, MD
 Professor of Surgery
 Adjunct Associate Professor of Family Medicine/
 Public Health
 University of Utah
 Salt Lake City, Utah
Chapter 49, Global Surgery

Vikas Dudeja, MD
 Assistant Professor of Surgery
 Division of Surgical Oncology
 Department of Surgery
 University of Miami
 Miami, Florida
Chapter 33, Pancreas

David L. Dunn, MD, PhD
 Prospect, Kentucky
Chapter 6, Surgical Infections
Chapter 11, Transplantation

Geoffrey P. Dunn, MD
 Medical Director
 Department of Surgery
 Hamot Medical Center
 Erie, Pennsylvania
*Chapter 48, Ethics, Palliative Care, and Care at the
 End of Life*

Kelli Bullard Dunn, MD, FACS, FASCRS
 Vice Dean, Community Engagement and Diversity
 Professor of Surgery
 University of Louisville School of Medicine
 Louisville, Kentucky
Chapter 29, Colon, Rectum, and Anus

Nabil A. Ebraheim, MD
 Chairman and Professor
 Department of Orthopaedic Surgery
 The University of Toledo Medical Center
 Toledo, Ohio
Chapter 43, Orthopedic Surgery

Antoine Eskander, MD, ScM, FRCSC
 Assistant Professor, University of Toronto
 Department of Otolaryngology—Head & Neck Surgery
 Sunnybrook Health Sciences Centre, Surgical Oncologist
 Michael Garron Hospital, Endocrine Surgery
 Institute for Clinical Evaluative Sciences (ICES),
 Adjunct Scientist
 Toronto, Ontario, Canada
Chapter 18, Disorders of the Head and Neck

Stephen A. Esper, MD, MBA
 Assistant Professor
 Department of Anesthesiology and Perioperative
 Medicine
 Director, UPMC Centers for Perioperative Care
 University of Pittsburgh Medical Center
 Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
*Chapter 50, Optimizing Perioperative Care: Enhanced
 Recovery and Chinese Medicine*

Xin-Hua Feng, PhD
 Distinguished Investigator
 Life Sciences Institute
 Zhejiang University
 Hangzhou, Zhejiang, China
 Professor of Molecular Cell Biology
 Michael E. DeBakey Department of Surgery and
 Department of Molecular & Cellular Biology
 Baylor College of Medicine
 Houston, Texas
*Chapter 15, Molecular Biology, The Atomic Theory of
 Disease, and Precision Surgery*

Emily Finlayson, MD, MS, FACS
 Professor in Residence
 Department of Surgery, Division of General Surgery
 Department of Medicine, Division of Geriatrics
 Phillip R. Lee Institute for Health Policy Studies
 Director, Center for Surgery in Older Adults
 Director, Department of Surgery Faculty Mentoring
 Program
 Department of Surgery
 University of California San Francisco
 San Francisco, California
Chapter 47, Surgical Considerations in Older Adults

William E. Fisher, MD, FACS

Professor of Surgery, Clinical Vice Chair and
Chief, Division of General Surgery
George L. Jordan, MD Chair of General Surgery
Michael E. DeBakey Department of Surgery
Director, Elkins Pancreas Center
Baylor College of Medicine
Houston, Texas
Chapter 33, Pancreas

Henri R. Ford, MD, MHA

Dean and Chief Academic Officer
University of Miami Miller School of Medicine
Don Soffer Clinical Research Center
Miami, Florida
Chapter 39 Pediatric Surgery

Freddie H. Fu, MD, DSc (Hon.), DPs (Hon.)

Distinguished Service Professor
University of Pittsburgh
David Silver Professor and Chairman
Department of Orthopaedic Surgery
University of Pittsburgh School of Medicine
Head Team Physician
University of Pittsburgh Department of Athletics
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
Chapter 43, Orthopedic Surgery

David A. Geller, MD

Richard L. Simmons Professor of Surgery
Chief, Division of Hepatobiliary and Pancreatic Surgery
University of Pittsburgh School of Medicine
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
Chapter 31, Liver

Nicole S. Gibran, MD, FACS

Professor, Department of Surgery
Associate Dean, Research and Graduate Education
Harborview Medical Center
University of Washington School of Medicine
Seattle, Washington
Chapter 8, Burns

Ricardo J. Gonzalez, MD, FACS

Chair, Sarcoma Department
Professor of Surgery
Chief of Surgery, Moffitt Cancer Center
Tampa, Florida
Chapter 36, Soft Tissue Sarcoma

John A. Goss, MD

Professor of Surgery
Michael E. DeBakey Department of Surgery
Division of Abdominal Transplantation and
Hepatobiliary Surgery
Baylor College of Medicine
Houston, Texas
Chapter 31, Liver

M. Sean Grady, MD

Charles Harrison Frazier Professor
Chairman
Department of Neurosurgery
Perelman School of Medicine at University of
Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
Chapter 42, Neurosurgery

Angelika Gruessner, PhD

Professor of Medicine
State University of New York (SUNY-Downstate)
New York, New York
Chapter 11, Transplantation

Rainer Gruessner, MD

Clarence & Mary Dennis Professor of Surgery
Chairman, Department of Surgery
State University of New York (SUNY-Downstate)
New York, New York
Chapter 11, Transplantation

David J. Hackam, MD, PhD, FACS

Garrett Professor and Chief of Pediatric Surgery
Professor of Surgery, Pediatrics and Cell Biology
Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine
Pediatric Surgeon-in-Chief and Co-Director
Johns Hopkins Children's Center
The Charlotte R. Bloomberg Children's Center
Baltimore, Maryland
Chapter 39, Pediatric Surgery

Kelly R. Haisley, MD

Clinical Instructor
Department of Surgery
Oregon Health and Science University
Portland, Oregon
*Chapter 32, Gallbladder and the Extrahepatic Biliary
System*

Lee Hammerling, MD

Chief Academic Officer
President, New Ventures
ProMedica Health System
Toledo, Ohio
Chapter 1, Leadership in Surgery

Patrick Harbour, MD

Department of Plastic Surgery
MedStar Georgetown University Hospital
Washington, DC
Chapter 16, The Skin and Subcutaneous Tissue

Michael S. Harris, MD

Assistant Professor, Department of Otolaryngology
Assistant Professor, Medical College of Wisconsin
Department of Otolaryngology & Communication
Sciences
Division of Neurotology & Skull Base Surgery
Milwaukee, Wisconsin
Chapter 18, Disorders of the Head and Neck

David G. Heidt, MD, FACS

Clinical Associate Professor
University of Toledo College of Medicine
Staff Surgeon, St. Joseph Mercy Medical Center
Ann Arbor, Michigan
Chapter 30, The Appendix

Daniel B. Hinshaw, MD

Professor
Department of Surgery
University of Michigan
Ann Arbor, Michigan
Chapter 48, Ethics, Palliative Care, and Care at the End of Life

John B. Holcomb, MD

Professor of Surgery
Department of Surgery
University of Texas Houston
Houston, Texas
Chapter 4, Hemostasis, Surgical Bleeding, and Transfusion

Jennifer Holder-Murray, MD, FACS, FASCRS

Vice Chair of Quality Integration
Assistant Professor Surgery
Division of Colon and Rectal Surgery
University of Pittsburgh Medical Center
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
Chapter 50, Optimizing Perioperative Care: Enhanced Recovery and Chinese Medicine

Kelly K. Hunt, MD, FACS

Hamill Foundation
Distinguished Professor of Surgery in Honor of Dr. Richard G. Martin Sr.
Chair, Department of Breast Surgical Oncology
The University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer Center
Houston, Texas
Chapter 17, The Breast

John G. Hunter, MD, FACS, FRCS Edin(Hon.)

Executive Vice President and CEO, OHSU Health System
Mackenzie Professor of Surgery, School of Medicine
Oregon Health and Science University
Portland, Oregon
Chapter 14, Minimally Invasive Surgery, Robotics, Natural Orifice Transluminal Endoscopic Surgery, and Single-Incision Laparoscopic Surgery
Chapter 25, Esophagus and Diaphragmatic Hernia
Chapter 32, Gallbladder and the Extrahepatic Biliary System

Sayed Ikramuddin, MD, MHA

Jay Phillips Professor and Chair
Department of Surgery
University of Minnesota Medical School
Minneapolis, Minnesota
Chapter 35, Abdominal Wall, Omentum, Mesentery, and Retroperitoneum

Tahir Jamil, MD

Clinical Assistant Professor of Surgery
University of Toledo College of Medicine and Life Sciences
Department of Surgery
Promedica Health System
Toledo, Ohio
Chapter 37, Inguinal Hernias

Rama Jayanthi, MD

Chief, Pediatric Urology
Nationwide Children's Hospital
Dayton Children's Hospital
Clinical Professor, Department of Urology
The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio
Chapter 40, Urology

Blair A. Jobe, MD, FACS

Chair of Surgery, Western Pennsylvania Hospital
Director, Institute for the Treatment of Esophageal and Thoracic Disease, Allegheny Health Network
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
Chapter 14, Minimally Invasive Surgery, Robotics, Natural Orifice Transluminal Endoscopic Surgery, and Single-Incision Laparoscopic Surgery
Chapter 25, Esophagus and Diaphragmatic Hernia

Puja Kachroo, MD

Clinical Instructor
Division of Cardiothoracic Surgery, Department of Surgery
Washington University School of Medicine
Barnes-Jewish Hospital
St. Louis, Missouri
Chapter 21, Acquired Heart Disease

Stephen Y. Kang, MD

Assistant Professor
Department of Otolaryngology—Head and Neck Surgery
Division of Head and Neck Oncology
The Ohio State University—James Comprehensive Cancer Center
Columbus, Ohio
Chapter 18, Disorders of the Head and Neck

Lillian S. Kao, MD, MS

Jack H. Mayfield, MD, Chair in Surgery
Vice-Chair of Research and Faculty Development
Vice-Chair for Quality of Care
Department of Surgery
McGovern Medical School at the University of Texas Health Science Center at Houston
Houston, Texas
Chapter 54, Web-Based Education and Implications of Social Media

Tara Karamlou, MD, MSc

Professor of Surgery, Division of Pediatric
Cardiac Surgery
Cleveland Clinic
Cleveland, Ohio
Chapter 20, Congenital Heart Disease

Brian C. Kellogg, MD

Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery
Nationwide Children's Hospital
700 Children's Dr
Columbus, Ohio

Ali J. Khiabani, MD, MHA

Resident Physician
Department of Surgery
Washington University School of Medicine
St. Louis, Missouri
Chapter 21, Acquired Heart Disease

Stephanie Kielb, MD

Associate Professor
Departments of Urology, Medical Education, and
Obstetrics and Gynecology
Northwestern University Feinberg School of Medicine
Chicago, Illinois
Chapter 40, Urology

Richard E. Kirschner, MD

Chief, Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery
Nationwide Children's Hospital
Columbus, Ohio
Chapter 45, Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery

Scott Kizy, MD

Resident in Surgery
University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, Minnesota
*Chapter 35, Abdominal Wall, Omentum, Mesentery, and
Retroperitoneum*

Bodo E. Knudsen, MD, FRCSC

Henry A. Wise II Endowed Chair in Urology
Associate Professor
Department of Urology
The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio
Chapter 40, Urology

Elise C. Kohn, MD

Head, Gynecologic Cancer and Neuroendocrine Cancer
Therapeutics
Clinical Investigations Branch
Cancer Therapy Evaluation Program
National Cancer Institute
Bethesda, Maryland
Chapter 41, Gynecology

Rosemary A. Kozar, MD, PhD

Professor of Surgery
Director of Translational Research at Shock Trauma
Associate Director of Shock Trauma Anesthesia
Research (STAR) Center
University of Maryland School of Medicine
Baltimore, Maryland
*Chapter 4, Hemostasis, Surgical Bleeding, and
Transfusion*

Mary R. Kwaan, MD, MPH

Associate Professor of Surgery
University of California, Los Angeles
Los Angeles, California
Chapter 29, Colon, Rectum, and Anus

Geeta Lal, MD, MSc, FRCS(C), FACS

Associate Professor, Surgery
Associate Chief Quality Officer, Inpatient
University of Iowa
Iowa City, Iowa
Chapter 38, Thyroid, Parathyroid, and Adrenal

Jeremy J. Laukka

Associate Professor of Medical Education & Neurology
Department of Medical Education
Associate Dean for Foundational Science Curriculum
University of Toledo College of Medicine and
Life Sciences
Toledo, Ohio
Chapter 1, Leadership in Surgery

Cheryl T. Lee, MD

Dorothy M. Davis Endowed Chair in Cancer Research
Professor and Chairman
Department of Urology
The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio
Chapter 40, Urology

Evan Leibner, MD, PhD

Assistant Professor
Institute of Critical Care Medicine & Department of
Emergency Medicine
Mount Sinai Medical Center
Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai
New York, New York
Chapter 4, Hemostasis, Surgical Bleeding, and Transfusion

Scott A. LeMaire, MD

Jimmy and Roberta Howell Professor of Cardiovascular Surgery
 Vice Chair for Research, Michael E. DeBakey
 Department of Surgery
 Professor of Molecular Physiology and Biophysics
 Director of Research, Division of Cardiothoracic Surgery
 Baylor College of Medicine
 Department of Cardiovascular Surgery, Texas Heart Institute
 Baylor St. Luke's Medical Center
 Houston, Texas
Chapter 22, Thoracic Aneurysms and Aortic Dissection

Xinran Li, PhD

Postdoctoral Fellow
 Life Sciences Institute
 Zhejiang University
 Hangzhou, Zhejiang, China
Chapter 15, Molecular Biology, The Atomic Theory of Disease, and Precision Surgery

Timothy K. Liem, MD, FACS

Professor of Surgery, Vice-Chair for Quality
 Department of Surgery, Knight Cardiovascular Institute
 Oregon Health & Science University
 Portland, Oregon
Chapter 24, Venous and Lymphatic Disease

Scott D. Lifchez, MD, FACS

Associate Professor of Plastic Surgery and Orthopedic Surgery
 Program Director, Johns Hopkins/University of Maryland Plastic Surgery Residency
 Director of Hand Surgery
 Johns Hopkins Bayview Medical Center
 Baltimore, Maryland
Chapter 44, Surgery of the Hand and Wrist

Amy Lightner, MD

Assistant Professor of Surgery
 Mayo Clinic College of Medicine
 Medical Director of Translation Into Practice Platforms
 Center for Regenerative Medicine, Mayo Clinic
 Senior Associate Consultant, Department of Surgery
 Mayo Clinic College of Medicine
 Division of Colon and Rectal Surgery
 Rochester, Minnesota
Chapter 1, Leadership in Surgery

Peter H. Lin, MD

Professor Emeritus of Surgery
 Michael E. DeBakey Department of Surgery
 Baylor College of Medicine
 Houston, Texas
Chapter 23, Arterial Disease

Xia Lin, PhD

Associate Professor of Surgery
 Michael E. DeBakey Department of Surgery
 Baylor College of Medicine
 Houston, Texas
Chapter 15, Molecular Biology, The Atomic Theory of Disease, and Precision Surgery

James D. Luketich, MD

Henry T. Bahnson Professor of Cardiothoracic Surgery, Chief, The Heart, Lung, and Esophageal Surgery Institute, Department of Surgery
 Division of Thoracic and Foregut Surgery
 University of Pittsburgh
 Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
Chapter 19, Chest Wall, Lung, Mediastinum, and Pleura

Carlos Rodriguez-Otero Luppí, MD, PhD

Unit of Gastrointestinal and Hematological Surgery, Hospital Sant Pau
 Professor of Surgery,
 Autonomous University of Barcelona
 Barcelona, Spain
Chapter 34, The Spleen

James R. Macho, MD, FACS

Emeritus Professor of Surgery
 University of California, San Francisco
 San Francisco, California
Chapter 1, Leadership in Surgery
Chapter 37, Inguinal Hernias
Chapter 52, Ambulatory Surgery

Martin A. Makary, MD, MPH, FACS

Professor of Surgery
 Johns Hopkins University
 Baltimore, Maryland
Chapter 12, Quality, Patient Safety, Assessments of Care, and Complications

Samuel P. Mandell, MD, MPH, FACS

Assistant Professor
 Department of Surgery
 University of Washington School of Medicine
 UW Medicine Regional Burn Center
 Harborview Medical Center
 Seattle, Washington
Chapter 8, Burns

Stephen Markowiak, MD

Clinical Instructor
 Department of Surgery
 University of Toledo College of Medicine and Life Sciences
 Toledo, Ohio
Chapter 1, Leadership in Surgery
Chapter 52, Ambulatory Surgery

Jeffrey B. Matthews, MD, FACS

Dallas B. Phemister Professor
Chair, Department of Surgery
Surgeon-in-Chief
The University of Chicago Pritzker School of Medicine
Chicago, Illinois
*Chapter 51, Understanding, Evaluating, and Using
Evidence for Surgical Practice*

Christopher McClung, MD

Adjunct Professor
The Ohio State University
Reconstructive Urologist
The Central Ohio Urology Group
Columbus, Ohio
Chapter 40, Urology

Funda Meric-Bernstam, MD

Chair, Department of Investigational Cancer
Therapeutics; Medical Director, Institute for
Personalized Cancer Therapy; Professor, Divisions
of Cancer Medicine and Surgery
MD Anderson Cancer Center
Houston, Texas
Chapter 10, Oncology

Hollis Merrick, MD, FACS

Professor Emeritus
Department of Surgery
University of Toledo College of Medicine and
Life Sciences
Toledo, Ohio
Chapter 1, Leadership in Surgery

Michael J. Miller, MD, FACS

Professor and Chair
Department of Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery
The Ohio State University
Wexner Medical Center
Columbus, Ohio
Chapter 45, Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery

Tabitha G. Moe, MD, FACC

Assistant Professor of Surgery
Adult Congenital Cardiology
Pulmonary Hypertension
Pregnancy and Cardiovascular Disease
Creighton University School of Medicine
Omaha, Nebraska
Chapter 20, Congenital Heart Disease

Gregory L. Moneta, MD, FACS

Professor, Division of Vascular Surgery
Department of Surgery and Knight Cardiovascular
Institute
Oregon Health & Science University
Portland, Oregon
Chapter 24, Venous and Lymphatic Disease

Ernest E. Moore, MD

Ernest E. Moore Shock Trauma Center at Denver Health
Distinguished Professor of Surgery, University of
Colorado Denver
Editor, *Journal of Trauma*
Denver, Colorado
Chapter 7, Trauma

Bart Muller, MD, PhD

Orthopaedic Surgeon
Academic Medical Center
Amsterdam, The Netherlands
Chapter 43, Orthopedic Surgery

Raghav Murthy, MD, DABS, FACS

Assistant Professor
Director, Pediatric Heart Transplantation
Division of Pediatric Cardiac Surgery
Kravis Children's at Mount Sinai Hospital
Icahn School of Medicine,
New York, New York
Chapter 20, Congenital Heart Disease

Moriah Muscaro, MD

Clinical Instructor
University of Toledo College of Medicine and
Life Sciences
Toledo, Ohio
Chapter 52, Ambulatory Surgery

Katie S. Nason, MD, MPH

Vice-Chair for Surgical Research, Department of
Surgery
Fellow, Institute for Healthcare Delivery and Population
Science
Thoracic Surgeon, Division of Thoracic Surgery
University of Massachusetts Medical School—Baystate
Health
Springfield, Massachusetts
Chapter 19, Chest Wall, Lung, Mediastinum, and Pleura

Munier Nazzal, MD, MBA, CPE, FACS, FRCS

Professor and Vice Chair, Department of Surgery
Chief, Division of Education
Chief, Division of Vascular, Endovascular and
Wound Surgery.
Medical Director of the Wound Center, University of
Toledo Medical Center
University of Toledo
Toledo, Ohio
Chapter 1, Leadership in Surgery
Chapter 9, Wound Healing
Chapter 52, Ambulatory Surgery

Matthew D. Neal, MD, FACS

Roberta G. Simmons Assistant Professor of Surgery
 Assistant Professor of Clinical and Translational Science
 and Critical Care Medicine
 Departments of Surgery
 Critical Care Medicine, and the Clinical and
 Translational Science Institute (CTSI)
 University of Pittsburgh
 Attending Surgeon, Division of Trauma and Acute Care
 Surgery
 University of Pittsburgh Medical Center
 Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
*Chapter 3, Fluid and Electrolyte Management of the
 Surgical Patient*

John Nemunaitis, MD

Professor of Medicine
 Chief, Division of Hematology and Oncology
 University of Toledo College of Medicine and
 Life Sciences
 Director Cancer Research
 ProMedica Health System
 Toledo, Ohio
*Chapter 15, Molecular Biology, The Atomic Theory of
 Disease, and Precision Surgery*

Matt Niesen, MD

Clinical Instructor
 Department of Orthopedic Surgery
 David Geffen School of Medicine at UCLA
 Los Angeles, California
Chapter 43, Orthopedic Surgery

John J. Nigro, MD

Chief, Pediatric Cardiac Surgery
 Director, Children's Heart Center
 Rady Children's Hospital
 San Diego, California
Chapter 20, Congenital Heart Disease

Junaid Nizamuddin, MD

Assistant Professor
 Department of Anesthesia and Critical Care
 The University of Chicago
 Chicago, Illinois
Chapter 46, Anesthesia for Surgical Patients

Michael F. O'Connor, MD, FCCM

Professor
 Department of Anesthesia & Critical Care
 The University of Chicago
 Chicago, Illinois
Chapter 46, Anesthesia for Surgical Patients

Mohamed F. Osman, MD

Assistant Professor of Surgery
 Division of Vascular and Endovascular Surgery
 Department of Surgery
 Director of Surgical Intensive Care
 The University of Toledo College of Medicine and
 Life Sciences
 Toledo, Ohio
Chapter 9, Wound Healing

Bradley Otto, MD

Assistant Professor
 Department of Otolaryngology—Head and Neck Surgery
 Division of Skull Base Surgery
 Director, Division of General Otolaryngology
 Director, Division of Rhinology
 The Ohio State University—James Comprehensive
 Cancer Center
 Columbus, Ohio
Chapter 18, Disorders of the Head and Neck

Adrian E. Park, MD, FRCSC, FACS, FCS(ESCA)

Professor and Chairman
 Department of Surgery
 Anne Arundel Health System
 Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine
 Baltimore, Maryland
Chapter 34, The Spleen

Catherine C. Parker, MD, FACS

Assistant Professor
 Department of Surgery
 The University of Alabama at Birmingham
 Birmingham, Alabama
Chapter 17, The Breast

Timothy M. Pawlik, MD, MPH, MTS, PhD, FACS, RACS (Hon.)

Professor and Chair
 Department of Surgery
 The Urban Meyer III and Shelley Meyer Chair for
 Cancer Research
 Surgeon-in-Chief
 The Ohio State University Wexner Medical Center
 Columbus, Ohio
*Chapter 48, Ethics, Palliative Care, and Care at the
 End of Life*

Andrew B. Peitzman, MD

Mark M. Ravitch Professor and Vice Chairman
 Department of Surgery, University of Pittsburgh School
 of Medicine
 Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
Chapter 5, Shock

Raphael E. Pollock, MD, PhD, FACS

Director, The Ohio State University Comprehensive Cancer Center
 Professor of Surgery; Kathleen Klotz Chair in Cancer Research
 The Ohio State University Wexner Medical Center
 Columbus, Ohio
Chapter 10, Oncology
Chapter 36, Soft Tissue Sarcomas

Matthew Pommerening, MD, MS

Department of Cardiothoracic Surgery
 University of Pittsburgh Medical Center (UPMC)
 Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
Chapter 4, Hemostasis, Surgical Bleeding, and Transfusion

Ourania Preventza, MD

Associate Professor, Michael E. DeBakey Department of Surgery
 Division of Cardiothoracic Surgery
 Baylor College of Medicine
 Department of Cardiovascular Surgery,
 Texas Heart Institute
 Baylor St. Luke's Medical Center, Houston, Texas
Chapter 22, Thoracic Aneurysms and Aortic Dissection

Jonathan Pribaz, MD

Resident in Orthopaedic Surgery
 UCLA Department of Orthopaedic Surgery
 Santa Monica, California
Chapter 43, Orthopedic Surgery

Raymond R. Price, MD, FACS

Director, Graduate Surgical Education, Intermountain Medical Center, Intermountain Healthcare
 Director, Center for Global Surgery, Professor
 Department of Surgery, University of Utah
 Salt Lake City, Utah
Chapter 49, Global Surgery

Carla M. Pugh, MD, PhD

Professor of Surgery
 Director, Technology Enabled Clinical Improvement Center
 Stanford University
 Palo Alto, California
Chapter 53, Skills and Simulation

Ashwin G. Ramayya, MD, PhD

Department of Neurosurgery
 Perelman School of Medicine at University of Pennsylvania
 Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
Chapter 42, Neurosurgery

Kara Richardson, MD

Clinical Instructor
 Department of Surgery
 University of Toledo College of Medicine and Life Sciences
 Toledo, Ohio
Chapter 52, Ambulatory Surgery

Robert E. Roses, MD, FACS

Assistant Professor of Surgery
 Perelman School of Medicine
 University of Pennsylvania
 Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
Chapter 26, Stomach

Philip R. Schauer, MD

Professor of Surgery, Cleveland Clinic Lerner College of Medicine
 Director, Bariatric and Metabolic Institute
 Cleveland Clinic
 Cleveland, Ohio
Chapter 27, The Surgical Management of Obesity

Matthew R. Schill, MD

Clinical Instructor
 Division of Cardiothoracic Surgery Department of Surgery
 Washington University School of Medicine
 Barnes-Jewish Hospital
 St Louis, Missouri
Chapter 21, Acquired Heart Disease

Andrew B. Schneider, MD, MS

The University of Chicago Medicine
 Chicago, Illinois
Chapter 51, Understanding, Evaluating, and Using Evidence for Surgical Practice

Steven A. Schulz, MD

Assistant Professor, Department of Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery
 The Ohio State University Wexner Medical Center
 Columbus, Ohio
Chapter 45, Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery

Neal E. Seymour, MD, FACS

Vice Chair for Clinical Affairs, Department of Surgery
 Division Chief, General Surgery, Baystate Health
 Professor and Surgery Residency Program Director
 University of Massachusetts Medical School—Baystate
 Director, Baystate Simulation Center—Goldberg Surgical Skills Lab
 Springfield, Massachusetts
Chapter 53, Skills and Simulation

Joseph Sferra, MD, FACS

Clinical Associate Professor of Surgery
University of Toledo College of Medicine and
Life Sciences
Vice President Department of Surgery
Promedica Health System
Toledo, Ohio
Chapter 37, Inguinal Hernias

Ahmad Shabsigh, MD, FACS

Assistant Professor
Department of Urology
The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio
Chapter 40, Urology

Mark L. Shapiro, MD, FACS

Trauma Medical Director and Chief of Trauma
Grady Memorial Hospital
Emory University Department of Surgery
Atlanta, Georgia
*Chapter 12, Quality, Patient Safety, Assessments of Care,
and Complications*

Saurabh Sinha, MD

Department of Neurosurgery
Perelman School of Medicine at University of
Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
Chapter 42, Neurosurgery

Katherine E. Smiley, MD

University of Utah Health
Division of General Surgery
Salt Lake City, Utah
Chapter 49, Global Surgery

David H. Song, MD, MBA, FACS

Physician Executive Director
MedStar Plastic & Reconstructive Surgery
Professor and Chairman
Department of Plastic Surgery
Georgetown University School of Medicine
Washington, DC
Chapter 16, The Skin and Subcutaneous Tissue

Michael W. Sourial, MD, FRCSC

Fellow, Endourology and Minimally Invasive Surgery
Department of Urology
The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio
Chapter 40, Urology

Donn H. Spight, MD

Assistant Professor
Department of Surgery
Oregon Health and Science University
Portland, Oregon
*Chapter 14, Minimally Invasive Surgery, Robotics,
Natural Orifice Transluminal Endoscopic Surgery, and
Single-Incision Laparoscopic Surgery*

Stephen Stanek, MD

Clinical Assistant Professor of Surgery
University of Toledo College of Medicine and
Life Sciences
Department of Surgery
Promedica Health System
Toledo, Ohio
Chapter 37, Inguinal Hernias

David B. Stewart, MD, FACS, FASCRS

Section Chief, Colorectal Surgery
University of Arizona – Banner University Medical
Center
Tucson, Arizona
Chapter 29, Colon, Rectum, and Anus

Anne M. Suskind, MD, FACS

Associate Professor of Urology
Department of Urology
University of California San Francisco
San Francisco, California
Chapter 47, Surgical Considerations in Older Adults

Eduardo M. Targarona, MD, PhD, FACS

Chief of the Unit of Gastrointestinal and Hematological
Surgery, Hospital Sant Pau
Professor of Surgery,
Autonomous University of Barcelona
Barcelona, Spain
Chapter 34, The Spleen

Ali Tavakkoli, MD

Division of General and GI Surgery
Brigham and Women's Hospital
Associate Professor of Surgery
Harvard Medical School
Boston, Massachusetts
Chapter 28, Small Intestine

Theodoros N. Teknos, MD, FACS

Professor of Otolaryngology-Head and Neck Surgery
President and Scientific Officer of UH Seidman
Cancer Center
UH Cleveland Medical Center
Cleveland, Ohio
Chapter 18, Disorders of the Head and Neck

Sarah M. Temkin, MD

Division of Gynecologic Oncology
Virginia Commonwealth University
Richmond, Virginia
Chapter 41, Gynecology

Bert J. Thomas, MD

Professor and Chief, Joint Replacement Service
Department of Orthopedic Surgery
David Geffen School of Medicine at UCLA
Los Angeles, California
Chapter 43, Orthopedic Surgery

Allan Tsung, MD

UPMC Professor of Surgery
 Division of Hepatobiliary and Pancreatic Surgery
 University of Pittsburgh
 Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
Chapter 31, Liver

Kiran K. Turaga, MD, MPH

Vice Chief, Section of General Surgery and Surgical
 Oncology
 Associate Professor, Department of Surgery
 Director, Surgical GI Cancer Program
 Director, Regional Therapeutics Program
 The University of Chicago Medical Center
 Chicago, Illinois
Chapter 30, The Appendix

Jeffrey Upperman, MD

Associate Professor of Surgery
 Director of Trauma, Pediatric Surgery
 Children's Hospital Los Angeles
 Keck School of Medicine
 University of Southern California
 Los Angeles, California
Chapter 39, Pediatric Surgery

Ian L. Valerio, MD

Professor, Department of Plastic and Reconstructive
 Surgery
 The Ohio State University Wexner Medical Center
 Columbus Ohio
Chapter 45, Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery

Frank J. Veith, MD

Professor of Surgery
 Department of Surgery
 New York University Langone Health
 New York, New York
Chapter 23, Arterial Disease

Dharmesh Vyas, MD, PhD

University of Pittsburgh Medical Center Orthopaedic
 Surgery
 UPMC Lemieux Sports Complex
 Medical Director and Head Team Physician
 Pittsburgh Penguins
 Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
Chapter 43, Orthopedic Surgery

Kasper Wang, MD

Associate Professor of Surgery
 Keck School of Medicine
 University of Southern California
 Los Angeles, California
Chapter 39, Pediatric Surgery

Ximo Wang, MD, PhD

Professor of Surgery
 Department of Surgery
 Tianjin Medical University, Nankai Hospital
 Chief, Institute of Acute Abdomen of Tianjin
 Tianjin, China
*Chapter 50, Optimizing Perioperative Care: Enhanced
 Recovery and Chinese Medicine*

Zhiliang Wang, MD

Professor of Surgery
 Institute of Hepatobiliary Diseases
 Zhongnan Hospital of Wuhan University
 Hubei Providence, China
 Institute of Acute Abdomen of Tianjin
 Tianjin, China
*Chapter 50, Optimizing Perioperative Care: Enhanced
 Recovery and Chinese Medicine*

**David I. Watson, MBBS, MD, PhD, FRACS,
FRCSEd (Hon.), FAHMS**

Professor & Head, Discipline of Surgery
 Flinders University of South Australia
 Adelaide, South Australia
 Australia
Chapter 25, Esophagus and Diaphragmatic Hernia

Randal S. Weber, MD, FACS

Professor and Chairman, Director of Surgical Services
 Department of Head and Neck Surgery
 University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer Center
 Houston, Texas
Chapter 18, Disorders of the Head and Neck

Adam S. Weltz, MD

Department of Surgery
 Anne Arundel Medical Center
 Annapolis, Maryland
Chapter 34, The Spleen

John A. Windsor, BSc, MD, FRACS, FACS, FRSNZ

HBP/Upper GI Surgeon and Professor of Surgery
 Director, Surgical and Translational Research Centre
 Department of Surgery, University of Auckland,
 Auckland, New Zealand
Chapter 33, Pancreas

Juehua Yu, PhD

Associate Professor
 Cancer Research Institute, Hangzhou Cancer Hospital,
 Hangzhou
 Department of Child Health Care, Xinhua Hospital
 Shanghai JiaoTong University School of Medicine
 Shanghai, China
*Chapter 15, Molecular Biology, The Atomic Theory of
 Disease, and Precision Surgery*

xx

Michael E. Zenilman, MD, MS

Professor of Surgery
Weill Cornell Medicine
Chair, Department of Surgery
New York Presbyterian Brooklyn Methodist Hospital
Brooklyn, New York
*Chapter 54, Web-Based Education and Implications of
Social Media*

Michael J. Zinner, MD, FACS

Moseley Professor of Surgery, Emeritus
Harvard Medical School
Boston, Massachusetts
CEO and Executive Medical Director
Miami Cancer Institute
Miami, Florida
Chapter 28, Small Intestine

Brian S. Zuckerbraun, MD, FACS

Henry T. Bahnson Professor of Surgery
University of Pittsburgh
Chief, Trauma and General Surgery
University of Pittsburgh Medical Center and VA
Pittsburgh Healthcare System
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
Chapter 5, Shock

First Foreword

It was a singular privilege to serve as editor-in-chief of the first and subsequent six editions of *Principles of Surgery*. The invitation from the current editor-in-chief, Dr. F. Charles Brunicaudi, who has discharged that responsibility for the ensuing four editions, to participate in the textbook's 50th anniversary, is gratifying. The readers of the first seven editions often commented on the distinctive yellow cover. On this particular celebration of longevity, the color yellow connotes "gold."

The past 50 years has witnessed an unimaginable growth in scientific knowledge available to students of surgery. The "science of surgery" has gained dominance over the "art of surgery." Diverse technologies have been incorporated to expedite diagnosis and improve surgical excision or repair. The establishment of more precise criteria for categorization and analyzing data, coupled with advances in informatics, has allowed for the practice of "evidence-based medicine and surgery." It is, as if, today's surgeons have adopted a new language, new rules, new protocols—and anticipate new outcomes. The passage of time has been associated with transformative change, which has been beautifully captured in the 11th edition.

Among the "Basic Considerations" that transcend individual organ systems, change has occurred at an ever-accelerating pace, in multiple arenas, with variable consequences, since the first edition made its debut. Not all changes have been favorable. Increased effectiveness of antibiotics has improved the outcomes of the treatment of sepsis, but has been associated with the appearance of *C. difficile* colitis and lethal MRSA hospital outbreaks. HIV, AIDS, HPV (human papilloma virus), and hepatitis B and C had not entered the surgical lexicon prior to publication of *Principles of Surgery*.

Over the course of years, trauma has become an ever-increasing problem. Since publication of the first edition, improved diagnostic techniques have altered the approach to individuals who sustained major trauma. The concept of immediate "damage control to be followed by delayed definitive treatment," the availability of angioembolization to control bleeding, and inert material

to maintain protect the unclosed abdominal abdomen for protected state for a critical, at times prolonged, period of time, during which caloric requirements are satisfied parenterally.

In oncology, a more precise tumor classification based on size, nodal involvement, metastases, chemical and biologic characteristics has been accepted. This, in turn, has allowed for more meaningful assessment of a variety of therapeutic regimens. Chemotherapy has been joined by immunotherapy, and targeted, precision genomic therapy has recently been introduced.

At the time of publication of the first edition of *Principles of Surgery*, only the kidney was deemed clinically acceptable for homotransplantation and satisfactory immunosuppression had not been developed. Advances in immunosuppression have added the liver, pancreas, small bowel, heart, and lungs to the list of organs transplanted with anticipated success.

Among the 1805 pages of text in the first edition, "facts" and "declarations by experts" have failed to stand the test of time for a variety of reasons. Little effort is required to uncover statements that now would be judged "False!" For example: (1) Cancer of the hypopharynx is three to four times as common as cancer of the larynx (the reverse is true). (2) Effective treatment of a single ventricle in a neonate is not feasible. (3) The distal 1 to 2 cm of the esophageal lumen is normally lined by columnar rather than squamous epithelium (the description of a Barrett's esophagus). (4) There is but one treatment for acute appendicitis...the only question to be resolved is the timing of surgical intervention. (5) The adenomatous (colonic) polyp is a lesion of negligible malignant potential. (6) The only acceptable treatment for a splenic injury accompanied by any evidence of intraperitoneal bleeding in an adult is splenectomy. (7) Hundred percent of patients with primary hyperaldosteronism have hypokalemia (most have no hypokalemia). More dramatic is the evidence that many of the prevalent surgical procedures that merited detailed illustration, consuming multiple pages in the first edition, are now, rarely if ever, performed.

It must be emphasized that a textbook chronicles a science during the contemporaneous time. The first edition, as is true for each of the 11 editions of *Principles of Surgery*, is a compendium that pertains, solely, up to the time of publication. Print does not imply permanence. Print often outlasts the fact it promulgates. I congratulate Dr. Brunicardi and the coeditors on a modern and

beautifully written 11th edition that carries forward the tradition of the *Principles of Surgery* into the next 50 years.

Seymour I. Schwartz, MD, FACS
Distinguished Alumni Professor of Surgery
University of Rochester School of
Medicine & Dentistry

Second Foreword

It is both an honor and a privilege to be asked to become an associate editor for the 11th edition of *Schwartz's Principles of Surgery*. Much has changed since the first edition was published in 1969, particularly in terms of how adult learners obtain knowledge. Today, approximately nine out of ten American adults use the internet and internet use by college graduates is nearly universal. Journal articles on any and all topics are available with a few keystrokes, with over 1,000 new articles being added daily to archives such as PubMed Central. Additionally, there are a multitude of online textbooks, videos of procedures, interactive surgical simulator applications, and other web-based resources that are widely available to medical students and professionals. *So, one might ask, do we still need surgical textbooks?*

The debate about whether textbooks are obsolete is not a new one. Opponents of textbooks suggest that they are expensive and inconvenient to access. Their content can be argued to become quickly outdated and to be unengaging to the modern learner who prefers interactive, multimedia content. On the other hand, proponents of textbooks note that evidence is lacking that comprehension is improved with digital technology. Furthermore, textbooks allow teachers to provide content within a clear framework, to ensure uniform delivery of content, and to have ease in re-referencing information.

What is the right answer? Modern and future learners should have textbooks available to them in multiple media formats. One media type does not fit all learners. Like surgery, optimal learning must be personalized based on an individual's preferences. The editors and publishing company behind *Schwartz's Principles of Surgery* have embraced this idea—the hardcover continues to be the best-selling general surgery textbook worldwide and there are no plans to eliminate the printed version. At the same time, the content is widely available on an interactive digital platform—Access Surgery—that includes access to multiple textbooks, quick references, a video atlas, and test review questions.

Regardless of the format, knowledge must come from a reliable source of information. For example, each chapter in the 11th edition of *Schwartz's Principles of Surgery* is written by at least one, and often two or more, authors who are experts in the subject matter. These authors have frequently built on work by those who have preceded them. Furthermore, each chapter is supported by

the evidence and vetted by one or more senior surgeons serving as editors. This new edition continues to provide up-to-date information on age-old topics in surgery such as the physiologic basis of disease as well as on the clinical diagnosis and management of surgical diseases.

The 11th edition deftly balances core knowledge that has stood the test of time with contemporary advances in science and technology. Examples include updated chapters on “Molecular Biology, The Atomic Theory of Disease, and Precision Surgery” and “Minimally Invasive Surgery, Robotics, and Natural Orifice Transluminal Endoscopic Surgery.” Additionally, there are multiple chapters focused on non-technical skills, which are often more important than technical skills, such as the first chapter of the textbook on “Leadership in Surgery.” This 11th edition also boasts five new chapters: “Enhanced Recovery after Surgery,” “Understanding and Evaluating Evidence for Surgical Practice,” “Ambulatory/Outpatient Surgery,” “Skills and Simulation,” and “Web-Based Education and Implications of Social Media.”

The fact that the 11th edition of *Schwartz's Principles of Surgery* marks the textbook's 50th anniversary is a testament to its continued relevance and contributions to surgical education. Moreover, its longevity is also a reflection of far-sighted editors-in-chief, first Dr. Seymour Schwartz followed by Dr. F. Charles Brunicaardi, who have been able to not only keep up with but also to anticipate changes in the surgical landscape. Not only is surgery a continuously changing discipline, but also the world in which surgeons practice is constantly evolving, as reflected by the digital era. Nonetheless, textbooks and the knowledge they carry will continue to play an important role, regardless of their format and packaging.

Lillian S. Kao, MD
Jack H. Mayfield, MD, Chair in Surgery
Professor and Chief, Division of Acute Care Surgery
Vice Chair of Research and Faculty Development
Vice Chair of Quality of Care
Co-Director, Center for Surgical Trials and
Evidence-based Practice (C-STEP)
Department of Surgery
McGovern Medical School at the
University of Texas Health Science Center at Houston

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Preface

With the publication of its 11th edition, *Schwartz's Principles of Surgery* celebrates its 50th anniversary. It is remarkable to consider the number of students, residents, fellows, surgeons, and patients who have benefitted from the collective knowledge compiled in this text over the last half-century. It is an honor for the current editorial board to carry forward the tradition of excellence in education established by Dr. Seymour Schwartz and previous editors. We recognize that surgeons have entered into an era of surgery in which the outcomes of operations and patient satisfaction scores are carefully monitored, demanding excellence through enhanced evidenced-based knowledge, patient-family-centered care, and the highest levels of professionalism.

The first chapter on leadership has taken on special meaning in light of the new demands placed on surgeons for both technical and nontechnical skills, underscoring the importance of instituting a formal leadership-training program for surgery students of all ages with an emphasis on mentoring. We have also entered into the dawn of a new era of surgery with advances in minimally invasive surgery using robots, molecular contrast, and full computerization, thus enhancing the safety of surgery and allowing surgeons a more comfortable environment in which to work. We recognize that the use of “omic” information is ushering in an era of precision surgery and the importance of surgeons, who have access to the tissues of the human body on a daily basis for “omic” profiling that will guide targeted therapies to enhance the outcomes of surgery.

Taking these constructs into consideration, the editors and authors of this 11th edition have done their very best to revise each chapter and convey the current state-of-the-art in surgery. Continuing in this effort, five new chapters

have been added: Understanding and Evaluating Evidence for Surgical Practice, Enhanced Recovery after Surgery, Ambulatory/Outpatient Surgery, Skills and Simulation, and Web-based Education and Implications of Social Media. This edition contains the latest in leadership training, surgical science, surgical techniques, and therapy for students, residents, fellows, and surgeons. Another important component of this new edition is the artwork. We acknowledge the outstanding artistic team of Jason M. McAlexander & Associates who directed the full color art program, which provides clear and consistent learning aids throughout the text and visually reflects the comprehensive and updated nature of this book.

The editors are thankful that this text is a trusted source for training and crafting surgeons worldwide. Such success is due in large part to the extraordinary efforts of our contributors—leaders in their fields—who not only train up-and-coming surgeons but also impart their knowledge and expertise to benefit patients across the globe. The inclusion of many international authors to the chapters within is ultimately a testament to mentorship, albeit on a broader scale, and we thank these authors and mentors, both near and far. To our fellow editorial board members who have tirelessly devoted their time and knowledge to the integrity and excellence of their craft and this textbook, we extend our gratitude. We are thankful to Andrew Moyer, Christie Naglieri, and all at McGraw-Hill who continued to believe in and support this work, and we wish to thank Katie Elsbury for her dedication to the organization and editing of this edition. Lastly, we would like to thank our families for their support and love.

F. Charles Brunicaardi, MD, FACS

Dedication

We, the editors of this leading textbook of surgery, *Schwartz's Principles of Surgery* are pleased to dedicate the 11th edition to Dr. Frank Gordon Moody. While most academic surgeons recognize Dr. Moody, as a top echelon surgical leader of the last half century, we choose to dedicate this edition to him because of the profound influence he had on the careers of many of the editors of this textbook. To some of us, Dr Moody was our surgical chair and academic inspiration. To others he was a research collaborator. For those of us who are not direct descendants, academically speaking, Frank Moody had the ability to recognize and provide the gift of mentorship to talented academic surgeons, irrespective of their academic pedigree.

Dr. Moody was born in Franklin, New Hampshire, attended Dartmouth College and Dartmouth Medical School (when it was a two-year school) then received his MD from Cornell. He stayed at Cornell throughout his surgical training, enticed into upper GI surgery by Dr. Frank Glenn. His academic career started at the University of California, San Francisco, under the legendary leadership of Dr. Bert Dunphy. He was subsequently recruited to the University of Alabama, Birmingham, where he rose to the rank of professor. In 1971, he became the Chair of Surgery at the University of Utah, coupling his love for skiing and hiking with an intense desire to bring scientific inquiry to the Wasatch Front. There, his passion for mentorship was uncovered. Eight of his trainees became department chairs, and many more visited Utah where the academic 'bug' was inoculated. In 1982, Dr. Moody took his talents to the University of Texas, Houston, where he served as the Denton Cooley Chair of Surgery. While he stepped down as Chair 12 years later, Dr. Moody remained in Texas for the rest of his career. Dr. Moody's influence was truly global; he was active in the International Surgical Society and was a founder of the International Surgical Group. It was often said that there was never a meeting that Dr. Moody missed—and at every meeting he truly “showed up”, contributing to the program, asking challenging questions, and spurring new lines of investigation for the many GI surgeons lucky enough



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to have Dr. Moody engage with their line of discovery. Nearly continuously funded by the National Institutes of Health (NIH) from 1967 to 2008, Dr. Moody was a force for surgical science, encouraging active participation by surgeons in the NIH study sections.

To many of the editors, the connection to Dr. Moody was even more personal. Attracted to training in Utah by the combination of skiing, science, and great surgical training, I first met Dr. Moody in the pages of the 3rd edition of this textbook, in which he authored the chapter on gallbladder disease. After many years of learning in the operating room and the laboratory, it is an honor to follow in his footsteps as the author of this chapter in this and the prior three editions of this classic surgical book. Dr. Moody, we will miss you, and hope to carry your many gifts forward, the greatest of which were your support and mentorship of the many who have been lucky enough to follow in your footsteps.

**John G. Hunter MD and the editors of
Schwartz's Principles of Surgery, 11th edition**

Part

Basic Considerations

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1 chapter

Leadership in Surgery

Stephen Markowiak, Hollis Merrick, Shiela Beroukhim,
Jeremy J. Laukka, Amy Lightner, Munier Nazzal,
Lee Hammerling, James R. Macho, and
F. Charles Brunicardi

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INTRODUCTION

The field of surgery has evolved greatly from its roots, and surgical practice now requires the mastery of modern leadership principles and skills as much as the acquisition of medical knowledge and surgical technique. Historically, surgeons took sole responsibility for their patients and directed proceedings in the operating room with absolute authority, using a command-and-control style of leadership. Modern surgical practice has now evolved from single provider-based care toward a team-based approach, which requires collaborative leadership skills. Surgical care benefits from the collaboration of surgeons, anesthesiologists, internists, radiologists, pathologists, radiation oncologists, nurses, pharmacists, social workers, therapists, hospital staff, and administrators. Occupying a central role on the healthcare team, surgeons¹ have the potential to improve patient outcomes, reduce medical errors, and improve patient satisfaction through their leadership of the multidisciplinary team. Thus, in the landscape of modern healthcare systems, it is imperative that surgical training programs include formal instruction on leadership principles and skills to cultivate their trainees' leadership capabilities.

Many medical and surgical communities, including residency training programs, acknowledge the need for improved physician leadership. Specifically, surveyed surgical residents felt a lack of confidence in multiple areas of leadership, particularly in conflict resolution.² Surgical trainees identify leadership skills as important, but they report themselves as "not competent" or "minimally competent" in this regard.^{2,3} While a small number of surgical training programs have implemented

formal curricula focused on teaching leadership principles, it is now imperative that all surgical training programs teach these important skills to their trainees.^{4,5} Interviews of academic chairpersons identified several critical leadership success factors,⁶ including mastery of visioning, communication, change management, emotional intelligence, team building, business skills, personnel management, and systems thinking. These chairpersons stated that the ability of emotional intelligence was "fundamental to their success and its absence the cause of their failures," regardless of medical knowledge.⁶ Thus, residency programs need to include leadership training to prepare future surgeons for success in modern healthcare delivery.

In the United States, the Accreditation Council for Graduate Medical Education (ACGME) has established six core competencies—patient care, medical knowledge, practice-based learning and improvement, interpersonal and communication skills, professionalism, and systems-based practice (Table 1-1)⁴—that each contain principles of leadership. The ACGME has mandated the teaching of these core competencies but has not established a formal guide on how to teach the leadership skills described within the core competencies. Therefore, this chapter offers a review of fundamental principles of leadership and an introduction of the concept of a leadership training program for future surgeons.

DEFINITIONS OF LEADERSHIP

Many different definitions of leadership have been described. Former First Lady Rosalynn Carter once observed that "A leader takes people where they want to go. A *great* leader takes people

Key Points

- 1▶ Effective surgical leadership improves patient care, safety, and clinical outcomes.
- 2▶ A fundamental principle of leadership is to provide a vision that people can live up to, thereby providing direction and purpose to the constituency.
- 3▶ Surgical leaders have the willingness to lead through an active and passionate commitment to the vision.
- 4▶ Surgical leaders have the willingness to commit to lifelong learning.
- 5▶ Surgical leaders have the willingness to communicate effectively and resolve conflict.
- 6▶ Surgical leaders must practice effective time management.
- 7▶ Different leadership styles are tools to use based on the team dynamic.
- 8▶ Surgical trainees can be taught leadership principles in formal leadership training programs to enhance their ability to lead.
- 9▶ Mentorship provides wisdom, guidance, and insight essential for the successful development of a surgical leader.

where they don't necessarily want to go, but where they ought to be." Leadership does not always have to come from a position of authority. Former American president John Quincy Adams stated, "If your actions inspire others to dream more, learn more, do more, and become more, you are a leader." Another definition is that leadership is the process of using social influence to enlist the aid and support of others in a common task.⁷

Levels of Leadership

When working toward organizational success, strong leadership is a critical component. The best study of the relationship between leadership skill and organizational success is in the field

of business. In business, the processes of customer satisfaction, product development, and organization efficiency are the equivalent of patient satisfaction, medical advancement, and efficient delivery of care. Jim Collins, author of *Good to Great*, studied the success and leadership styles of Fortune 500 companies over a 30-year period. He found that leadership is strongly correlated with corporate success, and most importantly for our study, that leadership strength can be broken down by level and characteristic (See figure 1-1).⁸

Of 11 particularly outstanding organizations identified, great leadership was the single major defining characteristic that distinguished them from their peers. These organizations were led by what Collins called the "Level 5 Leader," one whose personal humility and professional will drove team success. Under this system of leadership study, surgeon-leaders begin at the bottom level and, through study, hard work, and professional development, advance to the ultimate level of leadership.⁸

Table 1-1

Accreditation Council for Graduate Medical Education core competencies

CORE COMPETENCY	DESCRIPTION
Patient care	To be able to provide compassionate and effective healthcare in the modern-day healthcare environment
Medical knowledge	To effectively apply current medical knowledge in patient care and to be able to use medical tools (i.e., PubMed) to stay current in medical education
Practice-based learning and improvement	To critically assimilate and evaluate information in a systematic manner to improve patient care practices
Interpersonal and communication skills	To demonstrate sufficient communication skills that allow for efficient information exchange in physician-patient interactions and as a member of a healthcare team
Professionalism	To demonstrate the principles of ethical behavior (i.e., informed consent, patient confidentiality) and integrity that promote the highest level of medical care
Systems-based practice	To acknowledge and understand that each individual practice is part of a larger healthcare delivery system and to be able to use the system to support patient care

FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES OF LEADERSHIP

Leadership is a complex concept. Surgeons should strive to adopt leadership qualities that provide the best outcomes for their patients, based on the following fundamental principles: vision, willingness, time management, conflict resolution,



Figure 1-1. Levels of leadership as defined by Jim Collins in *Good to Great*. (Reproduced with permission from Collins J: *Good to Great*. Boston, MA: Harper Collins; 2011.)

Table 1-2

The fundamental principles of leadership

LEADERSHIP SKILL	DESCRIPTION AND APPLICATION IN THE FIELD OF MEDICINE
Vision	The act of establishing tangible goals of care for patients on both a daily basis as well as for long-term purposes.
Effective communication	Establishing an open, respectful, and nonjudgmental forum for communication among different members of the healthcare team and with the patient.
Willingness to lead	Taking on full responsibility for the care of patients and remaining ethical, professional, and committed despite the especially challenging rigors of joining the field of surgery.
Willingness to learn	A commitment to lifelong learning of the latest scientific, medical, and surgical updates to deliver optimized patient care.
Conflict resolution	The art of resolving conflicts in a peaceful and ethical manner in team settings.

recruitment, and culture (See Table 1-2). Surgeon-leaders will develop a team of faculty, residents, and other healthcare personnel who are aligned on mission, vision, and values. The team and leader must be willing to address complex problems with honest communication and well-developed conflict resolution skills. A culture must be established where faculty and staff will work towards the advancement of the medical arts and the greater good of society.⁹

Vision

The first and most fundamental principle of leadership is to establish a vision that people can live up to, thus providing direction and purpose to the constituency. Creating a vision is a declaration of the near future that inspires and conjures motivation.¹⁰ A classic example of a powerful vision that held effective impact is President Kennedy's declaration in 1961 that "... this nation should commit itself to achieving the goal, before this decade is out, of landing a man on the moon and returning him safely to the earth." Following his declaration of this vision with a timeline to achieve it, the United States mounted a remarkable unified effort, and by the end of the decade, Neil Armstrong took his famous walk and the vision had been accomplished (Fig. 1-2).

On a daily basis, surgeons are driven by a powerful vision: the vision that our surgical care will improve patients' lives. The great surgical pioneers, such as Hunter, Lister (Fig. 1-3), Halsted, von Langenbeck, Billroth, Kocher (Fig. 1-4), Carrel, Gibbon, Blalock, Wangensteen, Moore, Rhoads, Huggins, Murray, Kountz, Longmire, Starzl, and DeBakey (Fig. 1-5), each possessed a vision that revolutionized the field of surgery. In the 19th century, Joseph Lister changed the practice of surgery with his application of Pasteur's germ theory. He set a young boy's open compound leg fracture, a condition with a 90% mortality

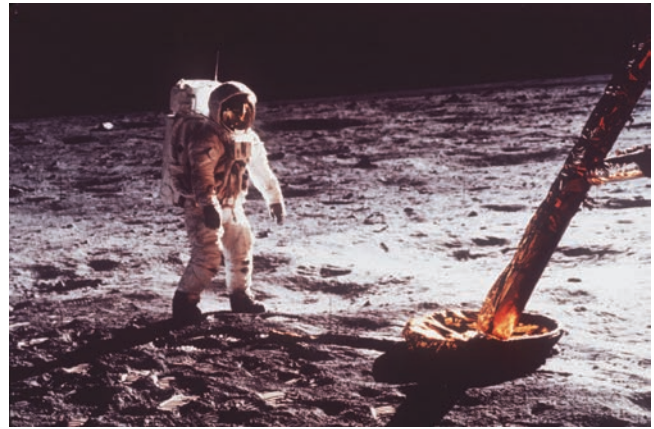


Figure 1-2. Apollo 11 Lunar Module moon walk. Astronaut Edwin "Buzz" Aldrin walks by the footpad of the Apollo 11 Lunar Module, July 1969. (Reproduced with permission from AP Photo/NASA. © 2018 The Associated Press.)

rate at that time, using carbolic acid dressings and aseptic surgical technique. The boy recovered, and Lister gathered nine more patients. His famous publication on the use of aseptic technique introduced the modern era of sterile technique. Emil Theodor Kocher was the first to master the thyroidectomy, thought to be an impossible operation at the time, and went on to perform thousands of thyroidectomies with a mortality of less than 1%. He was awarded the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine in 1909 for describing the thyroid's physiologic role in metabolism. Michael E. DeBakey's powerful vision led to the development of numerous groundbreaking procedures that helped pioneer the field of cardiovascular surgery. For example, envisioning an artificial artery for arterial bypass operations, Dr. DeBakey invented the Dacron graft, which has helped millions of patients suffering from vascular disease and enabled the development of endovascular surgery. Dr. Frederick Banting, the youngest recipient of the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine, had a vision to discover the biochemical link between diabetes and glucose homeostasis. His vision and perseverance led to the discovery of insulin.¹¹ In retrospect, the power and clarity of their visions were remarkable, and their willingness and dedication were inspiring. By studying their careers and accomplishments, surgical trainees can be inspired by the potential impact of a well-developed vision.



Figure 1-3. Joseph Lister directing use of carbolic acid spray in one of his earliest antiseptic surgical operations, circa 1865. (Used with permission from Getty Images.)

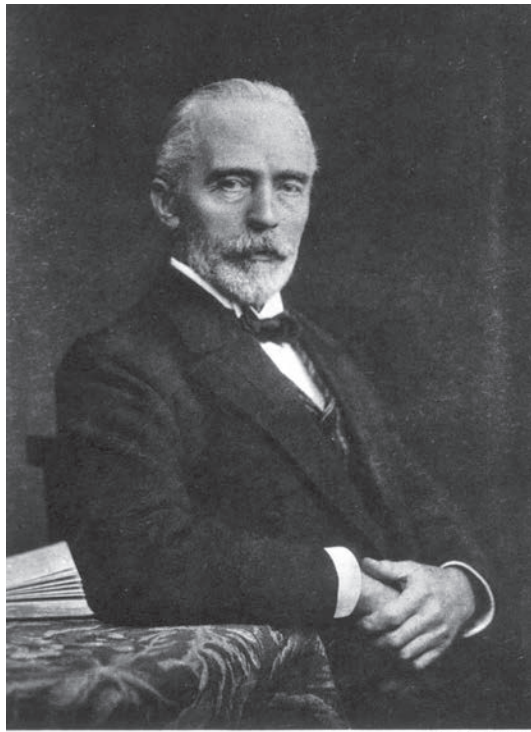


Figure 1-4. Emil Theodor Kocher. (Reproduced with permission from the National Library of Medicine.)

Leaders must learn to develop a vision to provide direction for their team. The vision can be as straightforward as providing quality of care or as lofty as defining a new field of surgery, such as atomic surgery and personalized medicine. One can start developing such vision by brainstorming the answers to two simple questions: “Which disease needs to be cured?” and “How can it be cured?”¹² The answers represent a vision and should be recorded succinctly in a laboratory notebook or journal. Committing pen to paper enables the surgical trainee to define his or her vision in a manner that can be shared with others.



Figure 1-5. Michael E. DeBakey. (Reproduced with permission from AP Photo/David J. Phillip. © 2018 The Associated Press.)

Generating Belief in Your Vision

Surgical leaders with great visions will inevitably require help from colleagues, other healthcare professionals, scientists, administrators, patients, and nonmedical personnel. To get this help, surgical leaders must inspire their team and understand motivation. For the surgeon-leader, it is critical to know that people do not follow leaders because of *what* they do; people follow leaders because of *why* they do what they do. The people who help the leader execute the vision are motivated by the leader’s beliefs and attitudes more than the leader’s policy or agenda. This concept, based on Simon Sinek’s *Start With Why*, is rooted in understanding of the anatomy and function of the human brain.¹³ See figure 1-6.

For example, take a surgeon-leader who wants to implement a new perioperative checklist to reduce surgical errors. The “what” is very simple: a checklist to reduce errors. The operating room team may make a rational decision to adapt the checklist; however, it is also possible that the checklist may be perceived as “another piece of paperwork” and rejected, or that the checklist may have its implementation fought, undermined, delayed, or ignored. A surgeon-leader who does not understand how people are motivated might argue rationally, telling the team that the checklist was created with great care, that all of the best evidence was incorporated in its creation, and that the checklist is short and efficient. This is the “how,” and once again it appeals to the rational and analytical side of the team. With these arguments, the surgeon-leader’s vision remains susceptible to rejection for many of the same reasons. A leader who understands how to motivate a team towards a vision will start with “why.” Before ever discussing the checklist in detail with the team, the leader will speak of their shared mission to offer the best patient care possible, ask the team to imagine how they might want a family member treated, and emphasize that a careless error could lead to patient harm and embarrassment for the team. With these arguments, which constitute an emotional appeal to the team’s belief system, the leader can expect this vision for better patient care via a new surgical checklist to be adapted by the team. The team will be receptive to implementing a new checklist, not because they believe in the checklist as a tool, but because they believe in the surgeon-leader’s vision for optimizing patient care.

There is a biological reason why this concept works. “Why,” “how,” and “what” are correlated to the functions

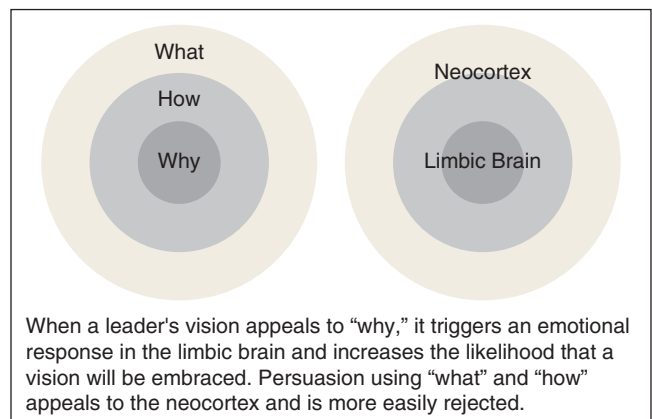


Figure 1-6. When leaders seek to generate belief in their vision, it is best to appeal to the team with “why” statements. (Data from Sinek S. *Start with why: how great leaders inspire everyone to take action*. London: Portfolio/Penguin; 2013.)

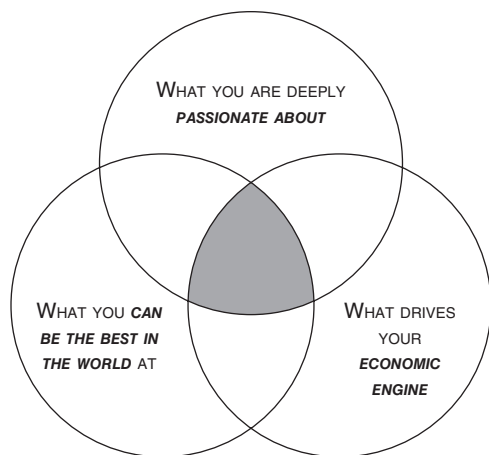


Figure 1-7. Leaders should be selective about where they expend their efforts, as demonstrated by Jim Collins in “Good to Great.” (Reproduced with permission from Collins J: Good to Great. Boston, MA: Harper Collins; 2011.)

of separate anatomical levels in the human brain. The neocortex is, evolutionarily, the newest area of our brains, and it is responsible for the analytical and rational thoughts and decisions that we make. It corresponds to the “what” and the “how.” When the surgeon-leader in the previous example started with the checklist and its rational arguments, the leader was appealing to their team’s neocortex, and the vision was rejected. However, when the surgeon started with the “why,” the vision for better patient care was emotionally accepted by the team, who became receptive to the checklist as a tool for achieving the vision.¹³

Surgery is a field that requires extraordinary dedication and great personal sacrifice. The very nature of vision—steps forward into a better future—implies that change and difficult work will be required of the leader. See figure 1-7. For this reason, surgeon-leaders should establish visions about which they are deeply passionate and committed so that when obstacles are encountered the leader has the strength of will to progress forward. Leaders should be selective about which options they pursue. Each opportunity and idea requires great effort to execute; ultimately only a few can be brought to completion. Therefore, leaders should understand what drives their organization’s economic engine: the ideas and opportunities that will bring patients better care, bring the organization more patients, and create new treatments, etc. Thousands of hospitals, companies, innovators, and physicians are addressing many of the same problems in healthcare, such as growing burdens of chronic disease, an aging population, and rising health costs. The best opportunities lie where talent and ability align, so leaders and organizations should be cognizant of choosing projects for which they have the potential to be the “best in the world” at doing. Once the vision is set and the project is chosen, it is up to the leader to generate momentum.

Momentum is either a cumulative effect of continuous steps towards improvement or, alternatively, in the negative sense, movements towards failure or stagnation. The “flywheel effect,” depicted in Fig. 1-8, demonstrates the building of momentum with (a) initial steps forward, (b) an accumulation of visible results, (c) realignment of the team in the new direction (accounting for new information and data), and then (d) an accumulation of momentum followed by more steps forward. Careful attention to the aforementioned principles is essential in building a successful surgical career, department, or division.⁸

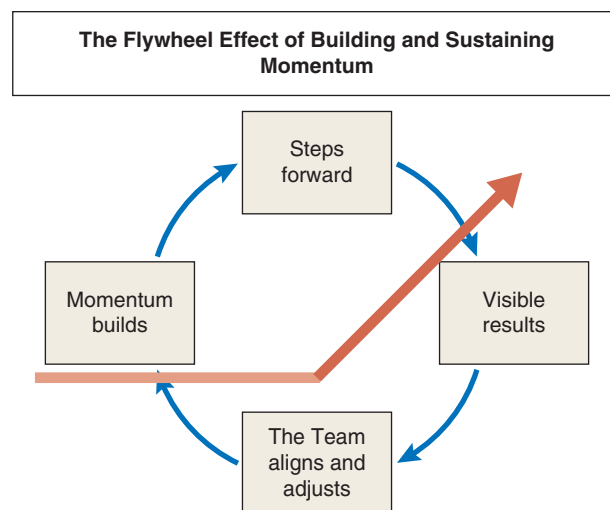


Figure 1-8. The “flywheel effect.” (Data from Collins J: Good to Great. Boston, MA: Harper Collins; 2011.)

Willingness

The Willingness Principle represents the active commitment of the leader toward his or her vision. To do so, a surgical leader must be willing to lead, commit to lifelong learning, communicate effectively, and resolve conflict.

To Lead. A key characteristic of all great leaders is the willingness to serve as the leader. Dr. Martin Luther King Jr, who championed the civil rights movement with a powerful vision of equality for all based on a commitment to nonviolent methods,¹⁴ did so at a time when his vocalization of this vision ensured harassment, imprisonment, and threats of violence against himself, his colleagues, and his family and friends (Fig. 1-9). King, a young, highly educated pastor, had the security of employment and family, yet was willing to accept enormous responsibility and personal risk and did so in order to lead a nation toward his vision of civil rights, for which he was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize in 1964.

Willingness to lead is a necessity in any individual who desires to become a surgeon. By entering into the surgical theater, a surgeon accepts the responsibility to care for and operate on patients, despite the risks and burdens involved. They do so, believing fully in the improved quality of life that can be achieved. Surgeons must embrace the responsibility of leading surgical teams that care for their patients, as well as leading surgical trainees to become future surgeons. A tremendous sacrifice is required for the opportunity to learn patient care. Surgical trainees accept the hardships of residency with its accompanying steep learning curve, anxiety, long work hours, and time spent away from family and friends. The active, passionate commitment to excellent patient care reflects a natural willingness to lead based on altruism and a sense of duty toward those receiving care. Thus, to ensure delivery of the utmost level of care, surgical trainees should commit to developing and refining leadership skills. These skills include a commitment to lifelong learning, effective communication, and conflict resolution.

To Learn. Surgeons and surgical trainees, as leaders, must possess willingness to commit to continuous learning. Modern surgery is an ever-changing field with dynamic and evolving healthcare systems and constant scientific discovery and innovation. Basic and translational science relating to surgical care is growing at an exponential rate. The sequencing of the human



Figure 1-9. Dr. Martin Luther King Jr acknowledges the crowd at the Lincoln Memorial for his “I Have a Dream” speech during the March on Washington, D.C., August 28, 1963. (Reproduced with permission from AP Photo. © 2018 The Associated Press.)

genome and the enormous advances in molecular biology and signaling pathways are leading to the transformation of precision medicine and personalized surgery in the 21st century (see Chapter 15).¹⁵ Performing prophylactic mastectomies with immediate reconstruction for *BRCA1* mutations and thyroidectomies with thyroid hormone replacement for *RET* proto-oncogene mutations are two of many examples of genomic information guiding surgical care. Technologic advances in minimally invasive surgery and robotic surgery as well as electronic records and other information technologies are revolutionizing the craft of surgery. The expansion of minimally invasive and endovascular surgery over the past three decades required surgeons to retrain in new techniques using new skills and equipment. In this short time span, laparoscopy and endovascular operations are now recognized as the standard of care for many surgical diseases, resulting in shorter hospital stay, quicker recovery, and a kinder and gentler manner of practicing surgery. Remarkably, during the last century, the field of surgery has progressed at an exponential pace and will continue to do so with the advent of using genomic analyses to engineer cancer cells with molecular imaging agents that will guide personalized surgery, which will transform the field of surgery during this century. Therefore, surgical leadership training should emphasize and facilitate the continual pursuit of knowledge.

Willingness to learn encompasses the surgeon’s commitment to lifelong learning. This has been exemplified by the surgeons of the past several decades who have dedicated their peak practicing years to perfecting minimally invasive surgical

techniques, including the use of robotic surgery. The field continues to advance, offering many advantages to patients including faster recovery, sometimes decreased pain depending on procedure type, and shorter hospital stays.¹⁶⁻¹⁸

Fortunately, surgical organizations and societies provide surgeons and surgical trainees a means to acquire new knowledge on a continuous basis. There are numerous local, regional, national, and international meetings of surgical organizations that provide ongoing continuing medical education credits, also required for the renewal of most medical licenses. The American Board of Surgery requires all surgeons to complete meaningful continuing medical education to maintain certification.¹⁹ These societies and regulatory bodies enable surgeons and surgical

4▶ trainees to commit to continual learning and ensure their competence in a dynamic and rapidly growing field.

Surgeons and trainees now benefit from the rapid expansion of web-based education as well as mobile handheld technology. These are powerful tools to minimize nonproductive time in the hospital and make learning and reinforcement of medical knowledge accessible. Currently web-based resources provide quick access to a vast collection of surgical texts, literature, and surgical videos. Surgeons and trainees dedicated to continual learning should be well versed in the utilization of these information technologies to maximize their education. The next evolution of electronic surgical educational materials will likely include simulation training similar to laparoscopic and Da Vinci device training modules. The ACGME, acknowledging the importance of lifelong learning skills and modernization of information delivery and access methods, has included them as program requirements for residency accreditation.

To Communicate Effectively. The complexity of modern healthcare delivery systems requires a higher level and collaborative style of communication. Effective communication directly impacts patient care. In 2000, the U.S. Institute of Medicine published *To Err Is Human: Building a Safer Health System*, which raised awareness concerning the magnitude of medical errors. This work showcased medical errors as the eighth leading cause of death in the United States with an estimated 100,000 deaths annually.²⁰ Subsequent studies examining medical errors have identified communication errors as one of the most common causes of medical error.²¹⁻²³ In fact, the Joint Commission identifies miscommunication as the leading cause of sentinel events. Information transfer and communication errors cause delays in patient care, waste surgeon and staff time, and cause serious adverse patient events.²³ Effective communication among surgeons, nurses, ancillary staff, and patients is not only a crucial element to improved patient outcomes, but it also leads to less

5▶ medical litigation.²⁴⁻²⁶ A strong correlation exists between communication and patient outcomes.

Establishing a collaborative atmosphere is important since communication errors leading to medical mishaps are not simply failures to transmit information. Communication errors “are far more complex and relate to hierarchical differences, concerns with upward influence, conflicting roles and role ambiguity, and interpersonal power and conflict.”^{22,27-29} Errors frequently originate from perceived limited channels of communication and hostile, critical environments. To overcome these barriers, surgeons and surgical trainees should learn to communicate in an open, universally understood manner and remain receptive to any team member’s concerns. A survey of physicians, nurses, and ancillary staff identified effective communication as a key element of a successful leader.³⁰ As

leaders, surgeons, and surgical trainees who facilitate an open, effective, and collaborative style of communication can reduce errors and enhance patient care. A prime example is that successful communication of daily goals of patient care from the team leader improves patient outcomes. In one recent study, the modest act of explicitly stating daily goals in a standardized fashion significantly reduced patient length of intensive care unit stay and increased resident and nurse understanding of goals of care.³¹ Implementing standardized daily team briefings in the wards and preoperative units led to improvements in staff turnover rates, employee satisfaction, and prevention of wrong-site surgery.²⁷ In cardiac surgery, improving communication in the operating room and transition to the postanesthesia care unit was an area identified to decrease risk for adverse outcomes.³² Behaviors associated with ineffective communication, including absence from the operating room when needed, playing loud music, making inappropriate comments, and talking to others in a raised voice or a condescending tone, were identified as patient hazards; conversely, behaviors associated with effective collaborative communication, such as leading the time-out process and closed-loop communication technique, resulted in improved patient outcomes.

One model to ensure open communication is through standardization of established protocols. A commonly accepted protocol is the “time out” that is now required in the modern operating room. During the time-out protocol, all team members introduce themselves and state a body of critical information needed to safely complete the intended operation. This same standardization can be taught outside the operating room. Within the Kaiser system, certain phrases have been given a universal meaning: “I need you now” by members of the team is an understood level of urgency and generates a prompt physician response 100% of the time.²⁷ As mentioned earlier, standardized forms can be useful tools in ensuring universally understood communication during sign-out. The beneficial effect of standardized team communication further demonstrates how effective communication can improve patient care and is considered a vital leadership skill.

Effective communication with patients in the modern era, necessitates understanding that many patients access health information via the internet and that patients are often ill equipped to evaluate the individual source.^{33,34} Discrepancies exist between surgeon’s self-perceived ability to communicate and patient’s actual satisfaction. A patient’s perceived interaction with their physician has an enormous impact on patient health outcomes, malpractice, and financial reimbursement;³⁵⁻⁴⁰ specifically, the association between poor doctor–patient communication and a patient’s perception that their doctor does not care about them. Good bedside manner has been shown to decrease litigation even in situations of error or undesirable outcome.³⁹⁻⁴⁰ Physicians who demonstrate concern, actively know their patients, and share responsibility for decision-making are more likely to be trusted by their patients.^{26,41,42} Strong doctor–patient relationships and effective communication skills have been incentivized by the Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality and the Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services through their Hospital Consumer Assessment of Healthcare Providers and Systems (HCAHPS) and Clinical and Group Consumer Assessment of Healthcare Providers and Systems (CGCAHPS) programs, which measure patient satisfaction.⁴³

To Resolve Conflict. Great leaders are able to achieve their vision through their ability to resolve conflict. Delivery of

modern surgical care is complex; numerous conflicts arise on a daily basis when surgeons and surgical trainees provide high-quality care. Therefore, the techniques for conflict resolution are essential for surgical leaders.

To properly use conflict resolution techniques, it is important for the surgeon and surgical trainee to always remain objective and seek personal flexibility and self-awareness. The gulf between self-perception and the perception of others can be profound; in a study of cooperation and collaboration among operating room staff, the quality of their own collaboration was rated at 80% by surgeons, yet was rated at only 48% by operating room nurses.⁴⁴ Systematic inclusion of modern conflict resolution methods that incorporate the views of all members of a multidisciplinary team help maintain objectivity. Reflection is often overlooked in surgical residency training, but it is a critical component of learning conflict resolution skills. Introspection allows the surgeon to understand the impact of his or her actions and biases. Objectivity is the basis of effective conflict resolution, which can improve satisfaction among team members and help deliver optimal patient care.

Modern conflict resolution techniques are based on objectivity, willingness to listen, and pursuit of principle-based solutions.⁴⁵ For example, an effective style of conflict resolution is the utilization of the “abundance mentality” model, which attempts to achieve a solution that benefits all involved and is based on core values of the organization, as opposed to the utilization of the traditional fault-finding model, which identifies sides as right or wrong.⁴⁶ Application of the abundance mentality in surgery elevates the conflict above the affected parties and focuses on the higher unifying goal of improved patient care. “Quality Improvement” (previously or alternatively “Morbidity and Mortality”) conferences are managed in this style and have the purpose of practice improvement and improving overall quality of care within the system, as opposed to placing guilt or blame on the surgeon or surgical trainees for the complication being reviewed. The traditional style of command-and-control technique based on fear and intimidation is no longer welcome in any healthcare system and can lead to sanctions, lawsuits, and removal of hospital privileges or position of leadership.

Another intuitive method that can help surgical trainees learn to resolve conflict is the “history and physical” model of conflict resolution. This model is based on the seven steps of caring for a surgical patient that are well known to the surgical trainee⁴⁷: (a) the “history” is the equivalent of gathering subjective information from involved parties with appropriate empathy and listening; (b) the “laboratory/studies” are the equivalent of collecting objective data to validate the subjective information; (c) a “differential diagnosis” is formed out of possible root causes of the conflict; (d) the “assessment/plan” is developed in the best interest of all involved parties; the plan, including risks and benefits, is openly discussed in a compassionate style of communication; (e) “preoperative preparation” includes the acquisition of appropriate consultations for clearances, consideration of equipment and supplies needed for implementation, and the “informed consent” from the involved parties; (f) the “operation” is the actual implementation of the agreed-upon plan, including a time-out; (g) and “postoperative care” involves communicating the operative outcome, regular postoperative follow-up, and the correction of any complications that arise. This seven-step method is an example of an objective, respectful method of conflict resolution.⁴⁷ Practicing different styles of conflict resolution and effective communication in front of the entire group of

	Low education	High education
Low service	Low education, low service value (Ex: Waiting during mandatory in-house call)	High education, low service value (Ex: Teaching conferences)
High service	Low education, high service value (Ex: Repeatedly performing History & Physicals)	High education, high service value (Ex: Operating with a mentor)

Figure 1-10. Surgery resident time-motion study.

surgical trainees attending the leadership training program is an effective means of teaching conflict resolution techniques.

Time Management

It is important for leaders to practice effective time management. Time is the most precious resource, as it cannot be bought, saved, or stored. Thus, management of time is essential for a productive and balanced life for those in the organization. The effective use of one's time is best done through a formal time management program to improve one's ability to lead by setting priorities and making choices to achieve goals. The efficient use of one's time helps to improve both productivity and quality of life.⁴⁸⁻⁵⁰

It is important for surgeons and surgical trainees to learn and use a formal time-management program. There are ever-increasing demands placed on surgeons and surgical trainees to deliver the highest quality care in highly regulated environments. Furthermore, strict regulations on limitation of work hours demand surgical trainees learn patient care in a limited amount of time.⁴⁸⁻⁵⁰ All told, these demands are enormously stressful and can lead to burnout, drug and/or alcohol abuse, and poor performance.⁴⁸⁻⁵⁰ A time-motion study of general surgery trainees analyzed residents' self-reported time logs to determine resident time expenditure on educational/service-related activities (Fig. 1-10).⁵⁰ Surprisingly, senior residents were noted to spend 13.5% of their time on low-service, low-educational value activities. This time, properly managed, could be used to either reduce work hours or improve educational efficiency in the context of new work hour restrictions. It is therefore critical that time be used wisely on effectively achieving one's goals.

Parkinson's law, proposed in 1955 by the U.K. political analyst and historian Cyril Northcote Parkinson, states that work expands to fill the time available for its completion, thus leading individuals to spend the majority of their time on insignificant tasks.⁵¹ Pareto's 80/20 principle states that 80% of goals are achieved by 20% of effort and that achieving the final 20% requires 80% of their effort. Therefore, proper planning for undertaking any goal needs to include an analysis of how much effort will be needed to complete the task.⁴⁹ Formal time management programs help surgeons and surgical trainees better understand how their time is spent, enabling them to increase productivity and achieve a better-balanced lifestyle.

Various time allocation techniques have been described.⁴⁹ A frequently used basic technique is the "prioritized list," also known as the ABC technique. Individuals list and assign relative

values to their tasks. The use of the lists and categories serves solely as a reminder, thus falling short of aiding the user in allocating time wisely. Another technique is the "time management matrix technique."⁴⁹ This technique plots activities on two axes: importance and urgency, yielding four quadrants (Fig. 1-11). Congruous with the Pareto's 80/20 principle and Parkinson's law, the time management matrix technique channels efforts into quadrant II (important but nonurgent) activities. The activities in this quadrant are high yield and include planning, creative activity, building relationships, and maintaining productivity. Too often, surgeons spend a majority of their time attending to quadrant I (important and urgent) tasks. Quadrant I tasks include emergencies and unplanned or disorganized situations that require intensive and often inefficient effort. While most surgeons and surgical trainees have to deal with emergencies, they often develop the habit of inappropriately assigning activities into quadrant I; excess time spent on quadrant I tasks leads to stress or burnout for the surgeon and distracts from long-term goals. Efficient time management allows surgeons and surgical trainees to be proactive about shifting energy from quadrant I tasks to quadrant II, emphasizing preplanning and creativity over always attending to the most salient issue at hand, depending on the importance and not the urgency.

Finally, "the six areas of interest" is an alternative effective time management model that can help surgeons and surgical trainees achieve their goals, live a better-balanced lifestyle, and improve the quality of their lives.⁴⁹ The process begins by performing a time-motion study in which the activities of 6-hour increments of time over a routine week are chronicled. At the end of the week, the list of activities is analyzed to determine how the 168 hours in 1 week have been spent. The surgical trainee then selects six broad categories of areas of interest

Time Management Matrix		
Important	Quadrant I	Quadrant II
	Quadrant III	Quadrant IV
Nonimportant	Urgent	Nonurgent

Figure 1-11. Time management. (Data from Covey S. *The Seven Habits of Highly Effective People*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster; 1989.)

(i.e., family, clinical care, education, health, community service, hobbies) and sets a single activity goal in each category every day and monitors whether those goals are achieved. This technique is straightforward and improves one's quality of life by setting and achieving a balanced set of goals of personal interest, while eliminating time-wasting activities.

A formal time management program is essential for modern leadership. The practice and use of time management strategies can help surgeons and surgical trainees achieve and maintain their goals of excellent clinical care for their patients, while maintaining a more balanced lifestyle.

Self-Care and Wellness

The challenges of practicing medicine place unique stresses on surgeons. A departmental program for improving wellness and teaching self-care can help alleviate these stresses. Acknowledging these stresses is an important step for any leader to help peers at risk. Quality of life surveys have identified individual protective factors that can be implemented prophylactically. These factors for improving self-care and wellness include regular exercise programs, maintenance of routine medical care, and health screening. The following may not apply to all physicians; however, religious practices, reflective writing, and maximizing work-life balance have also been demonstrated to be protective.⁵²

Surgeons and physicians overall experience increased rates of suicide, depression, substance abuse, marital and family problems, and other stress-related health effects as compared to the general population. Suicide rates in physicians are higher among those who are divorced, widowed, or never married. Depression is a common challenge, with rates as high as 30% among trainees, and higher when lifetime risk is considered. Drug and alcohol abuse among physicians mirrors the general population; however, physicians have higher rates of prescription drug abuse. The ability to self-medicate likely contributes to prescription drug abuse by physicians. Divorce and marriage unhappiness among physicians has been attributed to the "psychology of postponement," compulsive personality traits that are reinforced and selected for during medical training, and lack of work-life balance. Residents, due to their inexperience, may be at higher risk than practicing physicians. For physicians who do not seek professional help, fear of losing their medical license is the most commonly provided reason. Departmental wellness programs may provide an alternative source of support for these surgeons.⁵²⁻⁵⁴

The past 10 years have seen a significant increase in attention to the issue of physician wellness. Physician wellness has become an issue transcending specialties and resulting in significant research. The creation of wellness and self-care programs within departments represents an opportunity for surgeons to demonstrate leadership qualities.⁵²⁻⁵⁴

Recruitment

The challenges of modern medicine and ever-larger medical centers have created a reality where no single surgeon-leader can exercise complete control—it takes a team of leaders with shared vision, mission, and goals. To this end, the previously discussed "level 5 leader" who embodies personal humility and professional will is essential.⁸ Previous generations whose leaders and departments were composed of self-proclaimed giants dominated and suppressed alternative points of view, communication, and innovation. In recent years, there has been a change to building teams with authentic leaders who have high ethical standards and well-developed nontechnical skills, who lead by example, and who never compromise excellence. The

surgeon-leader must build a team where talented individuals are placed in the right job for their skills. The essence of a leader is one who enables others to succeed. Team work is imperative to change, and trust is the make-or-break component. Simply put, teams that trust each other work well, and teams that do not trust each other do not work well.⁹

Creating a Culture of Empathy, Patient-Family-Centered Care, and Personalized Surgery

Creating the right culture is the most challenging of all the surgeon-leader's tasks. Modern surgical departments should focus on creating a culture of empathy, patient-family-centered care, and personalized surgery. Instilling a positive culture requires both discipline and consistency because it may take considerable time to change how people think, feel, and behave.^{9,55,56} Organizational culture is built around the leader's vision and values. Coming up with strong values requires genuine commitment. A leader should realize that staying true to his or her values can be challenging when conflicts arise.⁵⁷

WHY WE LEAD

Choosing to Become a Leader

There are many benefits to becoming a leader. Humankind has pondered the question of whether leaders are born or made for millennia. The best evidence to date indicates that leaders are both born and made. Leadership potential is a skill that all persons are born with, to some degree, and that can be formally trained, learned through observation, and honed with practice.¹³ The positive effects of a leader on others are innumerable, including a leader's positive influence on innovation, diversity, culture, and quality. For modern surgeons, leadership skills are essential for the delivery of quality patient care; therefore, it is the duty of the surgeon to study leadership.

For the surgeon studying to be a better leader, effective leadership also has many individual benefits, including recognition from one's peers, promotion, and autonomy. Modern leaders are increasingly required to be humble about their accomplishments in order to be successful and effective.⁸ Beyond recognition, promotion, and autonomy there are more selfless reasons for surgeons to desire leadership. Leadership is a tool to help make a difference. Leadership is a good path towards a career as an educator, which offers the leader a sense of accomplishment and satisfaction in seeing others succeed. Some choose to become leaders out of a sense of selfless service, taking on leadership for the benefit of others, or out of a desire to solve problems. Leadership may come with material rewards, including wealth and power, which motivate some.

Whatever the motivation, surgeons, in their role as leaders of patient care teams, have a duty to develop some skill in leadership. It would be best for individuals, departments, and patients if all surgeons sought to develop leadership skills and experience in some area of administration, patient care, education, or research. The benefits to the individual are numerous.

Leadership's Effect on Healthcare Cost and Clinical Outcomes

Much attention has rightly been paid to historical leaders' impact on humanity. Surgical leaders of the past have made great contributions on which we may build. All surgeons have a responsibility to be leaders, whether at the team level or in

an administrative or organizational capacity. To that end, it is worth noting the benefits of formal leadership education.

Large observational studies using trained observers assessed the effects of different surgical leadership styles on operative cases. Team cohesion and collective efficiency were reduced when leaders utilized abusive supervision or overcontrolling methods. Abusive supervision alone was associated with decreased “psychological safety.”⁵⁸ Surgeons perceived as having positive leadership characteristics by their staff have lower 30-day all-cause mortality.⁵⁹ This is likely due to creating a culture of safety where the staff can speak up if they notice an error and feel they have the latitude to do what is best for the patient quickly and autonomously.^{59,60}

With increased recognition and attention on human error, nontechnical skills, including leadership, play a role in patient safety. The landmark study, “To Err Is Human,” estimated that almost 100,000 people die each year due to medical errors.²⁰ In the surgical setting, 40% to 50% of errors may be attributed to communication breakdown. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire scores subjects on their demonstration of transformational leadership behaviors. Transformational leaders exhibit the qualities of charisma, inspired motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. In video analysis of complex surgical operations, surgeons scoring even a single point higher on the transformational leadership score exhibited 3 times more information sharing behaviors, 5 times more positive voice behaviors, and 10 times more supportive behaviors, all while displaying poor behaviors 12.5 times less frequently than their peers.⁶⁰ Exhibiting the characteristics of transformational leadership clearly has much to offer the surgeon-leader in preventing serious errors.⁵⁸⁻⁶⁰

The field of trauma contains the largest body of formal study demonstrating the positive effects of leadership on clinical results. Strong leadership skills improve both the speed of resuscitation and completion of the initial trauma evaluation.⁶¹⁻⁶³ There is no one optimal style of leadership covering all situations; some call for a more empowering leadership style while others call for a more directive style. The optimal style of leadership varies based on team composition, with less experienced teams better responding to the directive style, while more experienced teams work faster with trust and an empowering style. The formally educated surgical leader should be able to switch easily between styles based on the situation at hand.^{56,58,60-64}

Leadership styles affect responses to patient safety concerns and protect the organization as a whole. The surgical leader adopts a supervisory capacity while creating a culture of safety. In detail, frontline staff must be encouraged to participate in safety improvement. Staff ownership of safety must be established and upheld. In order to assure this outcome, whistleblowers must be protected. A culture of psychological safety, organizational fairness, and continuous learning is required. Subordinates require appropriate authority, autonomy, and latitude to do their jobs and care for patients.⁶⁰

Formal leadership training has been well studied within the Veteran’s Health Administration system using the Surgical Care Improvement Program. The Medical Team Training Program, for instance, has been shown to result in a 18% decrease in 30-day mortality⁶⁵ and a 17% decrease in 30-day morbidity.⁶⁶

Also at the organizational level, leaders using an empowering style may improve process of care protocols and increase efficiency. Operating room turnover times specifically have been shown to be reducible.⁶⁷ Value-based purchasing

benchmarks, such as hospital-acquired infections, which affect reimbursement, can be reduced or eliminated depending on the measure.^{68,69} Medical errors may be reduced, and significant medical errors may have their effects mitigated. Patient satisfaction may be improved. The overall financial performance of the institution can be affected in a positive manner.^{69,70}

There are positive correlations between mutual respect, clinical leadership, and surgical safety. Traditional command and control style leadership negatively impacts psychological safety resulting in the development of more modern leadership styles. The best clinical processes have the potential to break down when there is a toxic work environment and lack of psychological safety within the team.

The Importance of Diversity and Leadership

The past quarter century has seen a steady increase in diversity within the field of surgery. Women, as of 2015, represent 38% of surgical trainees and 10% of academic professors currently, but have doubled their representation in the past 20 years.⁷¹ Some fields, such as head and neck surgery and plastic surgery⁷² have studied their own subspecialty groups with similar findings. African Americans comprise both 6% of medical school graduates, 6% surgical trainees, and 2% to 4% of professors of surgery nationwide.⁷³ Hispanics represent 5% of graduating medical students, 9% of general surgery trainees, and 4% to 5% of persons at all levels of academic surgery.⁷³ Physician diversity is crucial and may help to address disparities in social determinants of health.⁷⁴

Studies indicate that the bottleneck in diversity occurs at the level of the medical school application pool, which in turn is caused by educational deficiencies at the primary, secondary, and collegiate level.^{73,75-78} As an attempted solution, the University of Michigan developed a “pipeline” program that pairs grade-school and high-school students with physicians for experiential learning and the development of mentoring, presentation skills, and networking.⁷⁵ It is important for departments of surgery to develop a diversity program for recruitment of residents and faculty. Multi-institutional blinded studies indicate that the implementation of formal leadership and diversity training improves diversity leadership and strategic human resource management.^{74,78}

LEADERSHIP STYLES

The principles of leadership can be practiced in a variety of styles. Just as there are many definitions of leadership, many classifications of styles exist as well. A landmark study by Daniel Goleman in *Harvard Business Review* identified six distinct leadership styles, based on different components of emotional intelligence.⁷⁹ Emotional intelligence is the ability to recognize, understand, and control the emotions in others and ourselves. By learning different styles, surgeons and trainees can recognize their own leadership style and the effect on the team dynamic. Furthermore, it teaches when the situation may demand change in style for the best outcome. The six leadership styles identified are *coercive*, *authoritative*, *affiliative*, *democratic*, *pacesetter*, and *coaching*.

The *coercive* leader demands immediate compliance. This style reflects the command and control style that has historically dominated surgery. Excessive coercive leadership erodes team members’ sense of responsibility, motivation, sense of participation in a shared vision, and ultimately, performance. The phrase, “Do what I tell you!” brings to mind the coercive leader. However, it is effective in times of crisis to deliver clear,

concise instruction. This style should be used sparingly and is best suited for emergencies.

The *authoritative* leader embodies the phrase “Come with me,” focusing on mobilizing the team toward a common, grand vision. This type of leader allows the team freedom to innovate, experiment, and devise its own means. Goleman’s research indicates this style is often the most effective. These leaders display self-confidence, empathy, and proficiency in initiating new ideas and leading people in a new direction. This is best used when a shift in paradigm is needed.

The *affiliative* leader creates harmony and builds emotional bonds. This requires employment of empathy, building relationships, and emphasis on communication. An affiliative leader frequently gives positive feedback. This style can allow poor performance to go uncorrected if too little constructive/critical advice is given. Affiliative leadership is most useful when motivating people during stressful circumstances or healing rifts in a team.

The *coaching* style of leadership focuses on developing people for the future. Coaching is leadership through mentorship. The coach gives team members challenging tasks, counsels, encourages, and delegates. Unlike the affiliative leader who focuses on positive feedback, the coach helps people identify their weaknesses and improve their performance, and ties their work into their long-term career aspirations. This leadership style builds team capabilities by helping motivated learners improve. However, this style does not work well when team members are defiant and unwilling to change or learn, or if the leader lacks proficiency.

The *democratic* leader forges consensus through participation. This leadership style listens to and values each member’s input. It is not the best choice in an emergency situation, when time is limited, or when teammates cannot contribute informed guidance to the leader. It can also be exasperating if a clear vision does not arise from the collaborative process. This style is most appropriate when it is important to obtain team consensus, quell conflict, or create harmony.

The *pacesetter* leader sets high standards for performance and exemplifies them. These leaders identify poor performers and demand more from them. However, unlike the coach, the pacesetter does not build the skills of those who are not keeping up. Rather, a pacesetter will either take over the task himself or delegate the task to another team member. This style can be summed up best by the phrase, “Do as I do, now.” This leadership style works well when it is important to obtain high-quality results and there is a motivated, capable team. However, pacesetters can easily become micromanagers who have difficulty delegating tasks to team members, which leads to burn out on the part of the leader. Additionally, team members can feel overwhelmed and demoralized by the demands for excellence without an empathic counter balance.

Each of the above styles of leadership has strengths and weakness. Importantly, leaders who are the most successful do not rely only on one leadership style alone. They use several of them seamlessly depending on the situation and the team members at hand. Therefore, the more styles a leader has mastered, the better, with particular emphasis on the authoritative, affiliative, democratic, and coaching styles. Each leadership style is a tool that is ultimately employed to guide a team to realizing a vision or goal. Thus, leadership training programs should teach the proper use of all leadership styles while adhering to the principles of leadership.

FORMAL LEADERSHIP TRAINING PROGRAMS IN SURGERY

History of Leadership Training and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Since it has been shown that effective leadership can improve patient outcomes, leadership principles and skills should be taught to surgical trainees using formal leadership training programs. The importance of teaching leadership skills is reflected by the ACGME mandated core competencies (see Table 1-1). However, surgical trainees, most notably chief residents, find themselves in various leadership roles without ever having experienced formalized leadership training, which has been shown to result in a self-perceived lack of leadership ability.² When surveyed on 18 core leadership skills (Table 1-3), 92% of residents rated all 18 skills as important, but over half rated themselves as “minimally” or “not competent” in 10 out of 18 skills.² Increasingly, residents and junior faculty are requesting leadership training and wish to close the gap between perceived need for training and the implementation of formal leadership training programs.⁸⁰⁻⁸⁶

A number of leadership workshops have been created. Extracurricular leadership programs have been designed mostly

Table 1-3

Eighteen leadership training modules

SKILLS	IMPORTANCE MEAN SCORE	COMPETENCE MEAN SCORE*
Academic program development	3.2	2.4*
Leadership training	3.8	2.3*
Leadership theory	3.2	2.1*
Effective communication	3.7	2.7*
Conflict resolution	3.8	3*
Management principles	3.7	2.7*
Negotiation	3.7	2.8*
Time management	4	2.8*
Private or academic practice, managed care	3.6	2*
Investment principles	3.5	2.2*
Ethics	3.6	3.2
Billing, coding, and compliance	3.5	1.7*
Program improvement	3	2*
Writing proposals	3.3	2.2*
Writing reports	3.4	2.4*
Public speaking	3.7	2.7*
Effective presentations	3.7	2.7*
Risk management	3.5	2.1*
Total	3.6	2.5*

* $P < 0.001$ by Student t-test between mean importance and mean competence scores.

Reproduced with permission from Itani KMF, Liscum K, Brunnicardi FC: Physician leadership is a new mandate in surgical training, *Am J Surg*. 2004 Mar;187(3):328-331.

for physicians with an MBA or management background but have not been incorporated into the core residency training program.⁸⁰ Also, there are many institutions that have published experiences with leadership retreats or seminars for residents or young physicians.⁸¹⁻⁸⁴ The ACGME hosts multiple leadership skills workshops for chief residents, mostly targeted toward pediatricians, family practitioners, and psychiatrists.⁸⁵ Similarly, the American College of Surgeons leads an annual 3-day leadership conference focusing on leadership attributes, consensus development, team building, conflict resolution, and translation of leadership principles into clinical practice.⁸⁶⁻⁸⁷ These programs were all received well by participants and represent a call for a formal leadership program for all surgical trainees.

An innovative leadership curriculum first implemented in 2000, prior to work-hour restrictions, taught general surgery trainees' collaborative leadership skills at a time when the traditional command-and-control leadership style predominated.^{2,89,90} Surgical residents participated in 18-hour-long modules based on the leadership principles and skills listed in Table 1-2, taught by the surgical faculty. A number of leadership techniques, including time management techniques and applied conflict resolution techniques described earlier, were designed and implemented as part of this leadership training program. Within 6 months of implementation, residents' self-perceived total commitment to the highest personal and professional standards, communication skills, visualization of clear missions of patient care, and leadership of others toward that mission increased significantly.^{2,89,90} Remarkably, the positive impact of this leadership curriculum was significant when measured using tools, such as the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), social skills inventory, personality inventory, and internal strength scorecard.^{2,89,90} The MLQ is a well-validated instrument that objectively quantifies leadership beliefs and self-perceived outcomes across medical and nonmedical disciplines. Based on the MLQ, surgical residents more often use a passive-avoidance style of leadership that emphasizes taking corrective action only after a problem is "significant and obvious." This tool can also be used to track progress toward more effective, collaborative styles of leadership. These studies demonstrated the ability to measure leadership behavior of surgical trainees in a standardized, quantifiable format.^{2,89,90} Taken together, these studies sup-

8▶ port the concept that leadership skills can and should be taught to surgical trainees, and there are validated tools to measure outcomes.

Designing the Program

Success in designing a formal leadership development program can be achieved through the following method. First, select the right participants at the right time in their career. Junior surgeons new to practice are ideal; however, they should be given a chance to get their clinical and research interests off the ground before they are asked to lead others. Candidates, should be open to taking on leadership roles and have the right combination of introspection and humility that lends to professional development. High-quality speakers from the business, legal, creative, and medical worlds should be brought as guest speakers. Topics could include leadership overall, strategy, finance, management skills, feedback, and coaching. Constructive criticism is essential because prospective leaders will need guidance and mentoring. Surgeons who have been through a formal leadership training program will become proficient at team-building skills and management and will become self-empowered individuals.⁹¹

Formal leadership training is not restricted to faculty alone. Leadership training should begin early and continue throughout residency. Surgical residents' leadership styles have been studied in environments where they are given an assistant to supervise, as if they were an attending. Most residents were able to adapt to difficult operative challenges, in this setting, by providing a more directed style of leadership to their assistants. When faced with a less challenging task, or when the surgery resident's confidence was particularly high, their leadership score was also high. For the surgical resident preparing to move on to the attending level, such skills are necessary to develop.⁹²

Nontechnical surgical skills, such as leadership, demonstrate a number of desired effects for the operative team. Patient safety, including all cause 30-day mortality, is improved by stronger nontechnical skills.⁵⁹ Development of clear and effective communication, situational awareness, team skills, and decision-making all are correlated with reduced surgical errors. Interruptions, such as needing to answer a page during an operation, are the only nontechnical factors in surgical error that are not directly attributable to leadership style.⁹³

Surgical leaders have a responsibility to make ethical decisions. At this time, there is no standard curriculum to formally train surgical residents in ethics, despite interest from a majority of residency program directors.⁹⁴⁻⁹⁷ Several solutions have been proposed. A case-based approach to ethics training appears to have some merit, where monthly hour long ethical dilemmas are discussed in an informal, nonhierarchical setting.⁹⁸ In another study, an ICU-based simulation model demonstrated promise for teaching compassion and end-of-life ethics to surgical residents. In this model, surgery residents have their first end-of-life conversations with standardized patients simulating the surgical ICU environment.^{99,100}

Practicing Leadership Skills and Assessing Leadership Formally With Objective Structured Clinical Examination (OSCE) and Simulation

The past decade has seen a demonstrable increase in our knowledge of how to develop leadership skills, particularly through simulation, as well as leadership evaluation through OSCE and other tools. Multiple groups have assessed multidisciplinary teams, typically composed of nurses, anesthesia groups, and surgeons for the leadership associated nontechnical skills of communication, teamwork, and situational awareness. Through increasingly validated instruments and assessment tools, these nontechnical skills have been found to be trainable.¹⁰¹ The OSCE has been established as the gold standard¹⁰² for the training and assessment of a wide range of clinical and nontechnical skills with high reliability and validity.¹⁰³⁻¹⁰⁶

The OSCE was developed by Harden, at the Ninewells Hospital in Dundee, Scotland, and first published in 1975.¹⁰⁷ He subsequently coined the term "OSCE" in his 1979 publication "Assessment of Clinical Competence Using an Objective Structured Clinical Examination (OSCE)."¹⁰⁸ The purpose of the OSCE was to address the lack of a reliable method to evaluate the clinical abilities of physicians and featured a comprehensive assessment of history-taking and physical examination skills. Early versions also assessed nontechnical skills, patient interaction, and professionalism. Since its inception, the OSCE has matured, been subjected to rigorous tests of reliability and validity, and has seen widespread adoption.¹⁰⁹⁻¹¹¹

OSCEs remain a critical portion of resident evaluation. They have been well validated for teaching leadership skills in

trauma and interacting with simulated patients in difficult scenarios. OSCEs can be tailored to a variety of circumstances, including practicing breaking bad news or discussing end of life care, dealing with angry or aggressive patients, and simulating disagreements with other providers or family members.¹⁰⁹⁻¹¹² The potential for OSCEs to train, test, and perfect nontechnical skills, such as leadership, is extraordinary.

A pilot project for the Medical Council of Canada was conducted by the University of Toronto and published in 1988 describing the use of an OSCE for evaluating the clinical skills of international medical graduates applying to Canadian residency.¹¹³ Effective communication and language proficiency have been key components since the beginning. A comprehensive review of this program 2 years later confirmed the reliability and validity of using an OSCE for this purpose.¹¹⁴ The Medical Council of Canada has subsequently mandated a requirement for an OSCE evaluation of all international graduates applying for positions in Canada. In place for the past two decades, the program has ensured a baseline proficiency of skill, attitude, knowledge, and other nontechnical skills.¹¹⁵

OSCEs quickly gained acceptance as an established tool to assess learners in a comprehensive manner and became the inspiration for the creation of the USMLE Step 2 Clinical Skills (CS) examination, required for all U.S. medical students prior to licensure.¹¹⁶ Indeed, medical students whose schools use OSCE as practice do better on USMLE Step 2.¹¹⁷ The USMLE Step 2 CS examination meets the criteria, discussed in the following section, for a thorough and well-designed OSCE examination, due to its 12-station design which takes 8 hours to complete. It has been found to be a valid and comprehensive evaluation of a student's clinical abilities, admittedly at massive expense to medical students.¹¹⁸ In the United States, osteopathic medical students take the OSCE-style Level 2 Performance Evaluation.¹¹⁹

Although station number and total duration are not completely agreed upon, data indicate that the OSCE examination should be between 3 and 6 hours and 8 to 10 stations in length in order to obtain reliable ($r \geq 0.7$) communication, history, and physical examination skills. A guideline was that at least seven cases are needed in any domain to achieve reliability. The testing period may be spread over several sessions making up an aggregate score in order to maintain validity. Many medical schools prepare their students for clinical practice with OSCE-style examinations throughout the year, which, taken together, are summative of a high-quality, multistation, valid OSCE. Checklists are typically the standard scoring tools; however, checklists alone may not be as reliable as a more comprehensive review by more experienced clinicians—particularly when assessing more advanced students and residents.¹²⁰ All of the licensure examinations, discussed previously, meet the criteria for a well-designed OSCE based on number of stations and time duration.

Beginning in 2003, the ACGME mandated the use of OSCEs within residency programs. At the time, residents were wary of its adoption, particularly fearing its use as a tool for determining promotion. Residents' perceptions of the examination, over time, did change to reflect an acceptance of its use for grading both technical and nontechnical skills.¹²¹⁻¹²³

In the United States, the OSCE assesses technical and nontechnical skills in an accurate and valid fashion. The OSCE demonstrates a rapid progression of technical skills highly correlated to a postgraduate year, whereas clinical skills improve at a more moderate rate¹²¹ (Fig. 1-12).

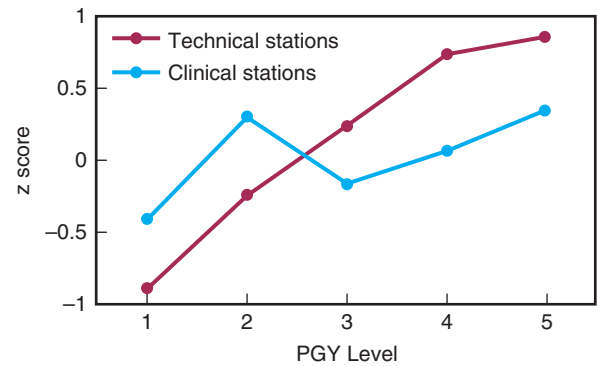


Figure 1-12. Resident assessment by year of training by OSCE. Technical skills assessment demonstrates a rapid and continual progression through 5 years of training, whereas clinical evaluations show only modest improvement over the same time period. (Data from Turner JL, Dankoski ME. Objective structured clinical exams: a critical review, *Fam Med*. 2008 Sep;40(8):574-578.)

The past 2 to 3 years has seen an explosion in simulation technology and research. In one particularly strong study, multiple teams were assessed for hemorrhage and airway emergencies. The Non-Technical Skills for Surgeons (NOTSS) tool was used to assess teams prior to and during simulation. For surgeons, higher NOTSS scores were associated with a quicker resolution of the simulation crisis.¹²⁵ Advances are being made in using simulation to solve difficult to teach physical examination skills such as breast lump detection and prostate or rectal cancers.^{126,127} Studies assessing these new simulation tools have also indicated that many attending level surgeons would benefit from continued simulation practice both for keeping operative skills fresh and preventing the decline of physical exam skills, for instance during dedicated research time.¹²⁶⁻¹²⁸

The Objective Structured Assessment of Technical Skills (OSATS) was initially developed as a bench station examination. It was later applied to intraoperative skill assessment, and appears to be an additional option for programs seeking a validated and reliable method for mixing technical skills assessment into simulations of nontechnical exercises to create a more “real world” simulation.¹²⁹⁻¹³³ With recent focus on milestones and proficiency-based promotion, as compared to time-based promotion of residents, there is a need to reliably assess intraoperative skill.¹³⁴ Digitization and modern computing have created new opportunities for simulation and education. One proposed method is a real-time, mobile web system featuring consistent and accurate assessment of the residents' performance. The platform enabled timely recording of data, was efficient in terms of how much faculty time it took to complete an assessment (average 2 minutes), and from a validity standpoint did trend well overall with resident postgraduate year. The system itself fulfilled the ACGME and American Board of Surgery mandate for program assessment of resident performance in the operating room.¹³⁴

Nontechnical skills often erode during stressful events, particularly in surgery where bleeding, complexity of the operation, time-constraints, and equipment problems can have a negative effect. Additionally, roadblocks with insurance and other third parties, critical illness, and delivering bad news add different kinds of stress.¹³⁵ Indeed, video analysis of real operations indicates that attending surgeons typically take over, change their style of leadership, and decrease their teaching in the operating room once unintended events occur.¹³⁶

By using simulated patients, patient-centered models, and intensive and immersive training, nontechnical skills including communication can improve interview techniques.^{137,138} Post communication skills training at the 12-month follow-up demonstrated that the training was effective, and with real clinical practice after the training communication skills had improved even more.¹³⁹

Lastly, there appears to be a positive feedback loop tying nontechnical leadership skills with self-perceived operating room prowess. Those surgeons who rate their own technical skills highly are also more likely to engage in positive leadership skills, including teaching in the operating room, handle difficult situations, and provide more clear instructions.¹⁴⁰ Simulation may be particularly critical for preventing technical skill decline in residents on dedicated research time or for attending surgeons whose research, clinic, or administrative

duties decrease the amount of time they can spend in the operating room. Simulation represents the future of medicine and an excellent opportunity for research and development. Medicine, including surgery, has much ground to make up in regards to simulation training compared to other high-risk fields, such as the military, space, and aeronautics. Modern surgical leaders should recognize surgical simulation as critical to their organization's success.

Evaluation of Surgeon Performance

Multiple organizations are evaluating the technical and nontechnical skills of surgeons in a real-time basis. We have included this comprehensive list of organizations (Table 1-4) with a brief description of their purpose and mechanisms of evaluation. Several of these involve technical skills evaluations and most involve nontechnical

Table 1-4

Multiple organizations have been created to evaluate both the technical and nontechnical skills of surgeons¹⁴¹

ORGANIZATION NAME	DESCRIPTION	MAIN SKILLS, CONDITIONS, OR QUALITIES EVALUATED	EVALUATION OF TECHNICAL SKILLS?	EVALUATION OF NONTECHNICAL SKILLS?
Hospital Consumer Assessment of Healthcare Providers and Systems (HCAHPS)	A public reporting initiative that measures patient perspectives on and satisfaction with hospital care based on qualities of healthcare that patients view as important.	Communication with nurses, communication with doctors, responsiveness of hospital staff, pain management, communication about medicines, discharge information, care transition	No	Yes
Clinical and Group Consumer Assessment of Healthcare Providers and Systems (CGCAHPS)	A public reporting initiative that measures patient perspectives on and satisfaction with care provided in an office setting based on qualities of healthcare that patients view as important.	Access to care, provider communication, test results, office staff, overall provider rating	No	Yes
Datix, Incident Reporting	A database of incidents that improves reliability of physicians by improving rates of reporting, promoting ownership of mistakes, and improving patient safety.	System issues, patient safety and quality issues, provider behavior, leadership style	Yes	Yes
Patient Advocacy Reporting System (PARS)	A system that compiles patient complaints into a complaint index for each physician for comparison with other medical group members and to help identify high-malpractice-risk physicians who may benefit from peer intervention.	Unprofessional behavior deemed as disrespectful and rude	No	Yes
Co-worker Observation Reporting System	A system in which physicians document coworker unprofessional conduct in order to provide nonjudgmental and timely feedback and to encourage self-reflection and change.	Unprofessional behavior deemed as disrespectful and unsafe	Yes	Yes

(Continued)

Table 1-4

Multiple organizations have been created to evaluate both the technical and nontechnical skills of surgeons¹⁴¹ (Continued)

ORGANIZATION NAME	DESCRIPTION	MAIN SKILLS, CONDITIONS, OR QUALITIES EVALUATED	EVALUATION OF TECHNICAL SKILLS?	EVALUATION OF NONTECHNICAL SKILLS?
American Board of Surgery (ABS) Maintenance of Certification (MOC) Program	A program that documents a surgeon's ongoing commitment to professionalism, lifelong learning, and practice improvement through self-report.	Restrictions on medical license, restrictions on hospital privileges, continuing medical education, self-assessment of continuing medical education, cognitive expertise, ongoing participation in quality assessment program relevant to the surgeon's practice	Yes	Yes
Hospital Compare	A database that is part of the Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services (CMS) Hospital Quality Initiative and provides information on hospital performance and quality of care based on consumer perspectives so that patients can assess and compare hospitals.	Hospital Compare is based on data from HCAHPS and evaluates hospitals by the same guidelines as HCAHPS	No	Yes
Federation of State Medical Boards (FSMB)	An organization representing all state medical and osteopathic boards in the United States that license physicians and sponsors the United States Medical Licensing Examination.	Medical knowledge, patient complaints, violations of the law	Yes	Yes
Internet clinical scores	A database of direct patient opinions of physicians, provided through various sources, including Healthgrades.com, RateMDs.com, and Yelp.	Professionalism, communication, timeliness	No	Yes
Hospital-Acquired Condition Reduction Program	A government program that provides incentives for hospitals to reduce the number of undesirable patient conditions resulting from their stay in the hospital and that could have been avoided by adjusting hospital reimbursement rates accordingly.	Foreign objects retained after surgery, air embolism, blood incompatibility, pressure ulcers, falls, poor glycemic control, catheter-associated infections, surgical site infections, deep vein thrombosis, pulmonary embolism, pneumothorax	Yes	No
American College of Surgeons National Surgical Quality Improvement Program (ACS NSQIP)	A program that collects information on and provides a risk-adjusted ranking of preventable surgical complication rates to encourage providers to improve care.	Surgical complications rates, surgical site infections, urinary tract infections, readmission rates, surgical outcomes	Yes	No
Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services Surgical Care Improvement Project (CMS SCIP)	A collaborative healthcare organization that collects data on surgical complication rates based on established guidelines.	Rates of infection, cardiac, venous thromboembolism, vascular, and respiratory, complications of surgery	Yes	No

skills. Additionally, most have been tied to performance evaluations and even salary and discipline up to and including loss of licensure. To our knowledge, this is the first comprehensive listing of the various agencies that evaluate surgeon performance.¹⁴¹

MENTORING AND DEVELOPMENT

Mentoring

A formal leadership training program for surgical trainees should include mentoring. Mentoring is the active process by which an experienced, empathetic person guides another individual in the development and self-recognition of their own vision, learning, core competencies, and professional development. Halstead established the concept of a surgical mentor who directly provided the trainees with professional and technical guidance. Halstead's concept went beyond a simple preceptorship by emphasizing clinical decision making based on scientific evidence. His goal was to develop surgeons who would go on to become outstanding leaders and innovators in the field. Although surgery has changed dramatically since Halstead's era, mentorship remains crucial in surgical training. In addition to teaching technical skills, clinical judgment, and scientific inquiry, modern-day mentors must also model effective communication, empathy, humanism, and the prioritization of competing professional and personal activities.

The mentor must also be an experienced and trusted advisor committed to the success of the mentee. A greater level of trust and commitment distinguishes the mentor from the teacher. More than a teacher, a mentor is a coach. The goal of a teacher is to pass on a defined level of knowledge for each stage of a student's education. The underlying premise is a limited level of advancement for the student. The coach, on the other hand, has the sole purpose to make his or her student the best at their game, with an unlimited level of advancement. Modern mentorship implies a partnership between the mentor and the mentee. Surgical residency program chairs and program directors must recruit and develop faculty "coaches" to mentor residents to optimize their potential. Emeritus Chair of the University of California, Los Angeles Head and Neck Surgery, Dr. Paul Ward, said it best: "We strive to produce graduates of our residency program who are among those who change the way we think and practice."¹⁴² Having more than 25 former residents become chairs of academic head and neck surgical programs, Dr. Ward embodied the role as a surgeon's coach. The responsibilities of an effective mentor are summarized by Baroness: "Mentoring, to be effective, requires of the mentor empathy, maturity, self-confidence, resourcefulness, and willingness to commit time and energy to another. The mentor must be able to offer guidance for a new and evolving professional life, to stimulate and challenge, to encourage self-realization, to foster growth, and to make more comprehensible the landscape in which the protégé stands."¹⁴³

One of the major goals of mentors is to assess the aptitudes and abilities of mentees with regard to the appropriateness of their vision for their surgical career. Proper selection of the appropriate mentor can bring to the mentee much needed wisdom, guidance, and resources and can expand the scope of his or her vision. In addition, the mentor can refine the leadership skills taught to mentees in formal training programs. Highly successful surgeons most often have had excellent surgical mentors. It is impressive to note that more than 50% of United States' Nobel laureates have served under other Nobel laureates in the capacity

of student, postdoctoral fellow, or junior collaborator.¹⁴⁴ In academic medicine, evidence-based studies have shown benefits to the mentees that include enhanced research productivity, higher likelihood of obtaining research grants, and greater success in obtaining desired positions in practice or at academic institutions.¹⁴⁵ Mentoring provides benefits to the mentors themselves, including refinement of their own personal leadership skills and a strong sense of satisfaction and accomplishment.

Mentorship is essential to accomplish the successful development of surgical trainees and to help cultivate their vision. Therefore, formal leadership training programs that have a goal of training the future leaders in surgery should include mentoring.

Modeling Leadership for Medical Students and the "Hidden Curriculum"

Medical students enter school with great empathy, excitement, optimism, and an idealistic vision. They have self-selected to enter a profession of healing and achieved entry into a highly coveted graduate training program with centuries of tradition. Yet, these medical students are naive to the actual practice of medicine and its professional norms. Along the way to becoming a doctor, many medical students lose some of the optimism, empathy, and excitement, particularly during their first and third years of school. Some students come to see the patient-physician relationship as an afterthought to providing care.^{145,146} Through the "hidden curriculum," formal leadership training, and modeling of professional behavior, surgical residents, and attendings can help medical students to realize their vision of becoming empathic physicians.

Traditionally, medical schools and professors have unknowingly relied on a hidden curriculum to mold these idealistic students into capable professionals. The hidden curriculum is the informal social norms learned by students implicitly, based on their observations of resident and attending behavior. The hidden curriculum has always been present in education, for better or worse, and may be unmasked and studied, but cannot be eliminated. Medical students actively engage in seeking out mentors, and naturally and subconsciously look to their mentors for cues on how to conduct themselves as physicians, the same way in which a child learns how to behave from a parent or older sibling. Whether or not the witnessed behavior is a positive example of professionalism, the student will begin to perceive that behavior as normal and acceptable. For better or worse, the professional norms of medicine (the Hippocratic oath, respect to patients and colleagues, ethical conduct, personal accountability, empathy, and altruism) are modeled in every personal encounter. It is imperative that all resident and attending surgeons understand that the medical students are observing them closely. When resident and attending surgeons model professional behavior, the hidden curriculum becomes a useful tool for professional development.¹⁴⁷⁻¹⁵⁰ This consistent modeling of professional behavior is one necessary component of leadership.

During their clinical years, medical students experience both an exponential growth in knowledge and a measurable decline in empathy towards their patients. Initially, medical students are filled with excitement and wonder during their first patient encounters. The rapid pace of clinical work, acquisition of knowledge, and intense experiences create stress for the student, both positively and negatively. Scrubbing into the operating room, witnessing the passing of a patient, helping deliver a baby, and studying for boards are impactful milestones that each student experiences in a matter of months. Due to the

challenges of their work, students naturally have doubts about their own career choices and abilities, even as they experience growth and success. However, as students gain knowledge and abilities, they also come to see commonly encountered clinical problems as routine work. As familiarity and comfort with clinical problems increases, the excitement and wonder experienced by the student decreases. It is during this time that a decline in student empathy occurs, typically in their third year of medical school.¹⁵¹ In medicine, even routine clinical work still requires extraordinary attention to detail, and compassionate care must be delivered to every patient, every time. This attention to detail and compassionate delivery of care are the hallmark of the true professional. It is important that surgical residents and attendings always model positive behavior.

Previously, medical schools instructed students in anatomy, physiology, pathology, and clinical medicine, but left the acquisition of professionalism to the informal hidden curriculum. The Carnegie Report, published in 2010 at the 100-year anniversary of the Flexner Report, called for medical education to promote “the progressive formation of the physician’s professional identity.”¹⁵² To this end, many medical schools nationwide emphasize early professional education and an integrated curriculum. The Liaison Committee on Medical Education (LCME) sets standards for administrative and faculty leadership that manage the curricular model and educational affairs of students; however, formal leadership education is not explicitly required at this time. However, career exploration, mentoring, and advising are instrumental responsibilities of each medical school and a requirement of the LCME. Establishing a leadership program that is perpetual and coexists within an integrated curriculum will support this endeavor.¹⁵³ A longitudinal leadership program beginning at the onset of medical school can establish a pattern of ethical behavior, professionalism, balance,

wellness, and strong character. Indeed, many medical schools are shifting to a new, integrated style curriculum with early professional development as the standard.¹⁵⁴

This chapter has emphasized, in an intentional way, the importance of establishing a vision and goals. Throughout the process of becoming a physician, medical students will trade some of their idealism and optimism for a refined vision and a set of goals that become a part of their professional identity. This newly matured vision will guide the future these students create. The future leaders of medicine and surgery are current medical students. To foster a climate of professionalism and empathy, medical students should be taught in an environment of formal leadership training, from the first day of medical school through graduation. In addition to leadership training, medical students will inevitably acquire some of the traits and habits of their resident and attending mentors through the hidden curriculum. In this way, the modeling of professional behaviors by surgical residents and attendings can serve to reinforce professionalism and may help to ward off the empathy decline experienced by medical students in their clinical years.

Tools to Measure Leadership Outcomes in Healthcare

There is evidence that leadership training improves healthcare quality. The ACGME, via its core competencies, has recognized technical skills, surgical judgement, and nontechnical skills as qualities essential to develop in residents.^{155,156} The objective measurement of nontechnical skills is difficult. Table 1-5 includes a list of methods for assessing nontechnical skills currently in use by some residency programs. The Consumer Assessment of Healthcare Providers and Systems (CAHPS) survey is in the early phases of being applied to individual physicians, but it has been applied to hospitals as a whole for several years.

Table 1-5

Leadership assessment toolbox

METHOD OF LEADERSHIP MEASUREMENT	DESCRIPTION
Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)	The MLQ is a questionnaire based on the differences between transformation and transactional approaches of leadership. It identifies leadership qualities through the rater’s beliefs about effective leadership.
NEO Five-Factor Personality Inventory (NEO)	NEO explores different facets of five different personality traits—neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness—through a questionnaire.
Surgeon’s Leadership Inventory (SLI)	The SLI is a questionnaire based on literature on leadership in surgery and surgeon’s leadership behaviors observed in the operating room. It includes eight elements of surgeon’s leadership in the operating room, which are maintaining standards, managing resources, making decisions, directing, training, supporting others, communicating, and coping with pressure.
Patient feedback	Patient complaints are inversely related to leadership effectiveness and can thus be used as opportunities to improve and as a measure of leadership.
Objective Structured Clinical Examination (OSCE)	The OSCE can be administered in a controlled environment with attending feedback on various aspects of leadership tackled in the practice cases. Videotaped sessions provide further opportunities for improvement as residents will be able to later observe their own behaviors and reflect on ways to improve their approach to the case presented.
Consumer Assessment of Healthcare Providers and Systems (CAHPS)	CAHPS surveys are based on aspects of healthcare that matter most to patients, such as physician communication. The results are made public and can be used to shed light on areas of leadership physicians can improve on to work towards a patient-centered approach to care.

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Leadership can be evaluated through instruments such as the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, the NEO Five-Factor Inventory, and the Surgeon's Leadership Inventory. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) analyzes leadership aptitude as either a transactional or a transformational style.¹⁵⁷ Leadership based on transaction focuses on completing and rewarding the tasks, whereas leadership based on transformation focuses more on the motivation for completing the tasks and emphasizes a positive and encouraging working environment for the team.^{158,159} In a study applying the questionnaire to five surgeons in a single hospital, surgeons who scored higher on the transformational section were more focused on promoting an open environment for all the attendings, residents, nurses and other staff in the operating room. This transformational style correlated with greater communication. These findings are important in showing that lack of communication is often a leading factor in surgical errors.

The use of an MLQ in 2008 studying surgical residents showed a significant association between transformational leadership and overall perceived team effectiveness and resident satisfaction.¹⁵⁸⁻¹⁵⁹ The questionnaire also found that the residents, as leaders, placed less value on the individual needs of their colleagues, possibly reflecting a high sense of independence and frequent changes in teams due to rotations among services. This finding helped identify an area of leadership training on which the program can focus to help further develop a more supportive team atmosphere amongst the residents. In 2011, a study administered the NEO Five-Factor Personality Inventory (NEO) to a group of surgical residents. NEO, which assesses personality on five broad strokes, including neuroticism, openness, agreeableness, extroversion, and conscientiousness, found that the surgeons scored above the national average on most of the factors tested but below average on agreeableness. This is a measure of altruism and tolerance, among other related factors. This result corresponded with the MLQ administered to the same group of residents and therefore highlighted areas of leadership that required modification.^{158,159}

The Surgeon's Leadership Inventory (SLI) is a helpful guide for residency programs.¹⁶⁰ The SLI grades surgeons on eight different elements of leadership, as listed in Table 1-6. As with the MLQ and NEO questionnaires, the SLI can be used to assess the growth of leadership ability in surgery residents. Table 6 provides a list and description of the different elements assessed by the SLI.¹⁴¹

LEADERSHIP TRAINING FOR THE PROSPECTIVE SURGEON

Prospective surgeons such as medical students and premedical students may have no better source for developing the personal attributes necessary for a successful career than current surgical attending surgeons and current residents. When surveyed, these doctors emphasized accountability, resilience, and high personal standards for oneself as critical tools. Prospective surgeons are advised to pursue perfectionism and be self-critical, cautioning against taking these traits to far towards neurotic behavior. Critical leadership skills of teamwork and learning to take initiative are mandatory in modern medicine and must be learned early. Innovation is highly desirable.¹⁶²

Residents, on the other hand, are closer to becoming independent. To some extent, they have already been selected for their leadership, innovation, and resiliency through the process

Table 1-6

Surgeons Leadership Inventory (SLI)

ELEMENT	DESCRIPTION
Maintaining standards	Practicing safe and quality patient care by following established protocols and asking for help when needed
Making decisions	Making informed judgments and communicating decisions with relevant personnel
Managing resources	Appropriately assigning resources and tasks to team members
Directing	Clearly communicating expectations and instructions and demonstrating confidence in leadership ability
Training	Educating and training team members when the opportunity arises
Supporting others	Offering assistance where appropriate and encouraging open communication
Communicating	Sharing information in a timely manner and encouraging input from others
Coping with pressure	Showing flexibility when required to meet goals

Data correlating patient complaints in a large number of hospitals show that improved leadership is associated with better hospital climate, improved performance, and a lower number of complaints.¹⁶¹

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of the match. During training their progression from novice to expert is necessarily rapid. A graded tool for all procedure based specialties including surgery – OpTrust – has been recently validated to facilitate the resident's transition to leadership across five domains including questioning, planning, instruction, problem solving, and leadership.¹⁶³

As emphasized throughout this chapter, the concept of training leadership skills early applies particularly to junior faculty and residents. The resident-surgeon-manager conference is one model for integrating department members of various experience levels into a results-based leadership conference. In this conference, various stakeholders including attorneys, persons with business experience, and risk management experts are brought in as guest participants. Exercises were immersive and included case-based discussions, role-playing, simulation, and interactive lecture. Topics included teamwork, learning negotiating techniques, time management, risk management, balance, giving feedback, and creating immediate, goal-oriented action plans.⁸⁶

EARLY CAREER DEVELOPMENT AND ESTABLISHING ONESELF

A variety of methods have been proposed for the professional development of new attending surgeons. "Speed Mentoring"—10-minute pairings of senior and junior surgeons answering preset questions—have been studied at national conferences with promising results. These sessions could be spread out over several days and integrated into a busy surgeon's schedule.¹⁶⁴

A study of department chairs and award-winning surgeon-scientists identified perseverance and team leadership skills as critical factors for development in the young attending surgeon. Chairs advocated protected time for research, financial support, and mentorship as departmental level support that the surgeon-scientist should actively seek out in their first position. The surgeon-scientist compared to the pure clinician faces a different set of challenges, particularly the financial challenge of funding research and clinical duties competing for time and attention with research interests.¹⁶⁵

One study addressed surgeon behavior in the operating room to assess the leadership style most associated with strong leadership. Based off of this study, surgeons who are trained to collaborate, consult others appropriately, be polite (simple “please” and “thank you”), and create a safe space for their operating room staff to voice concerns will demonstrate good leadership. However, surgeons who demonstrate nonconstructive criticism, destructive humor, steer conversation away from the current case, and express frustration will be perceived as demonstrating poor leadership. Under this system, surgeon behavior can be categorized—conductor, elucidator, delegator, engagement facilitator, tone setter, being human, and safe space maker—in order to provide individual feedback for professional development.¹⁶⁶

SENIOR FACULTY DEVELOPMENT: TRANSITIONING TO DEPARTMENTAL LEADERSHIP AND LEGACY BUILDING

The presence of experienced, senior academic surgeons within a department represents an opportunity. The formal development of a plan for late career transitioning through departmental leadership roles all the way to emeritus status naturally initiates a constructive process when thought out years in advance. The plan should be agreeable to the senior faculty member in question as well as departmental leadership and hospital stakeholders. Once in place, the senior academic surgeon and department will both thrive thanks to a shared vision, mutual understanding, and clear goals and transition points. Departmental leadership can use the transition plan to look ahead at the future of their department years down the line.¹⁶⁷

Recognition of senior academic surgeons with departmental leadership, promotions, and emeritus status is a privilege earned by the academician over a lifetime of work; however, for the department it represents an opportunity to shape the values and culture of the faculty body as a whole. The continued visibility, model, and influence of such leaders will have a trickle-down effect on the rest of the department. Surgical leaders are part of a large and extraordinary network facilitated by mentorship and decades of professional collaboration. Exceptional senior academic surgeons may often experience the “multiplier-effect” whereby one excellent leader trains several, who go on to train several more until the culture of surgery nationwide is influenced.¹⁶⁸

Although there are no mandatory ages for which surgeons must retire as in other professions, such as airline pilots, the issue of aging and when to cease practice has been controversial. There are some, however few, reports of physicians practicing after the decline of their skill and becoming dangerous. As a whole, the profession has been unable to prevent this. Nationwide, from 1975 to 2015, the number of physicians practicing after age 65 has increased by 374%. Some hospitals and

healthcare organizations have implemented mandatory cognitive and physical evaluations as a condition of continued practice. In the absence of more robust professional initiatives our field may see legislative oversight in the future.¹⁶⁹ The authors believe that a formally planned transition emphasizing the values of leadership and legacy-building offers a more palatable alternative.

CONCLUSION

Although there are several definitions of leadership and a variety of leadership styles, all share the common goal of improving patient care in the modern era. All forms of leadership require a vision and willingness—the willingness to assume the responsibility to lead, continue learning, practice effective communication styles, and resolve conflict. Effective leadership can change surgical departments and improve patient care through innovation. A growing body of evidence suggests the mastery of leadership requires practice through intentional curricula and reinforcement through mentorship.

Surgical leadership is bred through its training programs. Thus, innovation in surgical training programs is needed to enhance the development of leadership skills of surgical trainees, to prepare them for practice in modern healthcare systems, and to optimize patient care, as well as compliance with requirements set forth by regulatory institutions governing surgery and surgical education. A growing body of literature supports the value of effective leadership in improving patient care, productivity, and the work environment while it validates the ability to measure the impact of leadership training. Therefore, it is of paramount importance to teach modern leadership principles and skills to surgical trainees in order to create a new generation of surgeon leaders who will shape the modern era of surgery in the context of rapidly evolving science, technology, and systems of healthcare delivery.

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2 chapter

Systemic Response to Injury and Metabolic Support

Siobhan A. Corbett

This chapter is dedicated to Dr. Stephen Lowry,
my mentor and friend.

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OVERVIEW: INJURY-ASSOCIATED SYSTEMIC INFLAMMATORY RESPONSE

The inflammatory response to injury occurs as a consequence of the local or systemic release of “damage-associated” molecules to mobilize the necessary resources required for the restoration of homeostasis. Minor host insults result in a localized inflammatory response that is transient and, in most cases, beneficial. Major host insults follow a different trajectory. A subset of these patients will die within 24 hours of hospital admission, succumbing to overwhelming tissue injury and immediate organ damage. With advances in prehospital care and improved trauma management, these numbers have diminished. A second subgroup of patients who suffer a major host insult succumb

to secondary organ damage remote from the injury site and die later (weeks) in their hospital course. They form an increasing percentage of the in hospital trauma-related deaths. A dysregulated, overwhelming systemic inflammatory response to the injury/hemorrhage and associated ischemia/reperfusion events has been implicated as the cause of multiple organ failure in these patients. Moreover, it has been linked to immune suppression that increases the risk of infectious complications and poor outcome. Finally, a third subgroup, characterized by extended length of stay in the ICU, complicated postdischarge courses, and failure to regain/recover to their preinjury status, has been described and also linked to persistent inflammation and suppressed host protective immunity. The term *persistent inflammation, immunosuppression, and catabolism syndrome* (PICS) has

Key Points

- 1▶ Endogenous damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs) are produced following tissue and cellular injury. These molecules interact with immune and nonimmune cell receptors to initiate a “sterile” systemic inflammatory response following severe traumatic injury.
- 2▶ In many cases, DAMP molecules are sensed by pattern recognition receptors (PRRs), which are the same receptors that cells use to sense invading pathogens. This explains in part, the similar clinical picture of systemic inflammation observed in injured and/or septic patients.
- 3▶ The central nervous system receives information with regard to injury-induced inflammation via soluble mediators as well as direct neural projections that transmit information to regulatory areas in the brain. The resulting neuroendocrine reflex plays an important modulatory role in the immune response.
- 4▶ Inflammatory signals activate key cellular stress responses (the oxidative stress response; the heat shock protein response; the unfolded protein response; autophagy; pyroptosis), which serve to mobilize cellular defenses and resources in an attempt to restore homeostasis.
- 5▶ The cells, mediators, signaling mechanisms, and pathways that comprise and regulate the systemic inflammatory response are closely networked and tightly regulated by transcriptional events as well as by epigenetic mechanisms, post-translational modification, and microRNA synthesis.
- 6▶ Management of critically ill and injured patients is optimized with the use of evidence-based and algorithm-driven therapy.
- 7▶ Nutritional assessments, whether clinical or laboratory guided, and intervention should be considered at an early juncture in all surgical and critically ill patients.

been applied to this group.¹ Recent data suggest that severely injured patients who are destined to die from their injuries, whether late in their hospital course or after discharge, differ from survivors only in the degree and duration of their dysregulated acute inflammatory response.¹⁻³

As trauma is the leading cause of mortality and morbidity for individuals under age 45, understanding the complex pathways that regulate the local and systemic inflammatory response following severe traumatic injury is necessary to develop appropriate and targeted therapeutic strategies that will improve outcomes for these patients.

In this chapter, we will review what is known about the soluble and cellular effectors of the injury-induced inflammatory response, how the signals are sensed, transduced, and modulated, and how their dysregulation is associated with alterations in the immune system. We will also discuss how these events are monitored regulated by the central nervous system. Finally, we will review how injury reprograms cellular metabolism, in an attempt to mobilize energy and structural stores to meet the challenge of restoring homeostasis.

THE DETECTION OF CELLULAR INJURY

The Detection of Injury is Mediated by Members of the Damage-Associated Molecular Pattern Family

Traumatic injury activates the innate immune system to produce a systemic inflammatory response (SIR) in an attempt to limit damage and to restore homeostasis. It includes two general responses: (a) an acute proinflammatory response resulting from innate immune system recognition of ligands, and (b) an anti-inflammatory response that may serve to modulate the proinflammatory phase and direct a return to homeostasis (Fig. 2-1). This is accompanied by a suppression of adaptive immunity.⁴ Rather than occurring sequentially, recent data indicate that all three responses are simultaneously and rapidly induced following severe traumatic injury.³

1▶ The degree of the systemic inflammatory response following trauma is proportional to injury severity and is an independent predictor of subsequent organ dysfunction and resultant

mortality. Recent work has provided insight into the mechanisms by which immune activation in this setting is triggered. The clinical features of the injury-mediated systemic inflammatory response, characterized by increased body temperature, heart rate, respirations, and white blood cell count, are similar to those observed with infection (Table 2-1). However, it is widely accepted that systemic inflammation following trauma is sterile, resulting from endogenous molecules that are produced as a consequence of tissue damage or cellular stress.⁵ Termed *damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs)* or *alarmins*, DAMPs interact with specific cell receptors that are located both on the cell surface and intracellularly.⁶

Trauma DAMPs are structurally diverse endogenous molecules that are immunologically active. Table 2-2 includes a partial list of DAMPs that are released either passively from necrotic/damaged cells or actively from physiologically “stressed” cells by upregulation or overexpression. Once they are outside the cell, DAMPs promote the activation of innate immune cells, as well as the recruitment and activation of antigen-presenting cells, which are engaged in host defense.⁷ The best-characterized DAMP with significant preclinical evidence for posttrauma release, as well as a direct link to the systemic inflammatory response, is high-mobility group protein B1 (HMGB1). Additional evidence for other important DAMP molecules that participate in postinjury inflammation is also presented.

High-Mobility Group Protein B1. The best-characterized DAMP in the context of the injury-associated inflammatory response is high-mobility group B1 (HMGB1) protein. HMGB1 is highly conserved across species. It is a constitutively expressed, nonhistone chromosomal protein that participates in a variety of nuclear events, including DNA repair and transcription. Inflammatory signaling can redirect HMGB1 to the cytosol in both monocytes and macrophages, as a result of posttranslational modification. HMGB1 is released passively from damaged or necrotic cells and is detected rapidly in the circulation within 30 minutes post injury. It can also be actively secreted from immune-competent cells stimulated by bacterial-derived lipoproteins (e.g., endotoxin) or by inflammatory cytokines (e.g., tumor necrosis factor). For example, macrophages release HMGB1 following the activation of the inflammasomes.^{8,9}