



HEALTH QUALITY & SAFETY
COMMISSION NEW ZEALAND

Kupu Taurangi Hauora o Aotearoa

Position paper on
the transparency of
information related to
health care interventions

Acknowledgements

The Health Quality & Safety Commission would like to acknowledge the Ministry of Health for their support and particularly for leading and organising the consultation forums surrounding this paper, and the Ministry of Health library for their assistance.



© Health Quality & Safety Commission 2016

Published in March 2016 by the Health Quality & Safety Commission,
PO Box 25496, Wellington 6146, New Zealand.

ISBN 978-0-908345-25-0

This document is available on the Health Quality & Safety Commission website: www.hqsc.govt.nz

Contents

Recommendations	3
The evidence	4
1. The views of New Zealand patients and consumers	4
2. Data considerations, appropriateness of measures, and registries	5
3. Informed consent and the autonomy of patients or consumers	6
4. Using data to drive improved outcomes and improve quality	6
5. Accountability	8
The Commission's view	9
References	10



Recommendations

The Health Quality & Safety Commission (the Commission) has reviewed the evidence surrounding publication of outcomes data such as rates of surgical mortality and other complications. This review includes the practical effects of reporting the outcomes of individual clinicians and those of wider teams.

We recommend:

- the public reporting of judiciously chosen, adequately risk-adjusted measures at the team, unit or organisational level rather than the individual level
- development of agreed national standards of data collection, relevant definitions and measures across New Zealand, and agreed risk adjustment models to account for case complexity and risk
- publication should include clear explanations of context, and of the limitations and interpretation of the data, in different formats and media to ensure the information is accessible to people of all levels of health literacy
- further evaluation of the cost effectiveness of investment in clinical registries weighed against accelerated investment in IT systems that could capture the same information as part of routine care.

The Commission suggests:

- consumers, colleges, professional bodies and employers together define a simple group of outcome and process measures for each specialty group that will serve to assure safety and drive improvement. These measures should reflect the different needs of the interested parties: we suggest one outcome and process measure each that is consumer-focused, clinician-focused and organisation-focused.

The Commission supports:

- the work underway to strengthen and align the processes within organisations to demonstrate doctors' ongoing competence: we recommend these processes are made more transparent and that boards of health care organisations are asked to attest to their presence, and to their confidence that all practitioners are participating and achieving acceptable standards
- increased education and training focused on enhancing teamwork within organisations.



The evidence

Transparency

The Commission supports transparency – ‘shining the light’ – to assure and improve the quality and safety of health care. Feedback to the Commission confirms wide support in New Zealand for this position and the view is widely held in most comparable countries.

The balance of the positive and negative practical effects of transparency on quality of health care is less clear in the context of the publication of outcomes data (such as surgical mortality and complications rates). In particular, it seems there is an important distinction between reporting information on the performance of individual practitioners and reporting information on the performance of units, organisations or teams.

The following matters need to be considered when thinking about transparency of outcomes data:

1. the views of New Zealand patients and consumers
2. data considerations, appropriateness of measures, and registries
3. the requirements for informed consent (and the autonomy of patients)
4. how best to use data to drive improved outcomes and improve quality of care
5. how outcomes data may contribute to assuring the accountability of practitioners and organisations.

In this paper we summarise the evidence on these issues, and draw conclusions. We reviewed the literature, held a workshop with consumers, and consulted the sector (by seeking responses to a draft paper summarising the literature and the issues). More detail on the search strategy, cited publications, and reviewed submissions is provided in the evidence review and appendices document, available on the Commission’s website: www.hqsc.govt.nz.

1. THE VIEWS OF NEW ZEALAND PATIENTS AND CONSUMERS

Patients and consumers should be included in the process of determining which outcome measures are reported and how the information is presented.¹⁻⁴ New Zealand consumers have stated that, because choice of individuals or hospital teams is generally not available, there is all the more reason for complete transparency to drive improvement across the sector.⁵ Consumers appear to want simple things: trust and confidence in the system; to know that professionals are competent and meet or are above the acceptable standard and that this competence is publicly demonstrated; that the system is reliable and organisations have the right culture of openness and transparency; and that there are visible processes to improve quality.⁵

Reporting should be connected to consumer decisions and needs.^{4,6,7} Many people may be more interested in functional and health-related outcomes than mortality data. Mortality rates are very abstract and often difficult to relate to – people find low frequencies difficult to interpret in relation to catastrophic events.⁷ Patient reported outcome measures (PROMs) – defined as each individual’s own assessment of his or her health or wellbeing, without interpretation by a clinician or anyone else – may be seen as particularly relevant and important.^{8,9} Patients value information about the experiences of other patients, including friends or family. For example, about whether their pain was controlled, whether they were listened to and whether the nurse came when called.^{10,11}

It follows that the profession, consumers and the specialty groups should work together to agree which outcomes should be reported, and at what level (eg, individual, unit, institution).

2. DATA CONSIDERATIONS, APPROPRIATENESS OF MEASURES, AND REGISTRIES

If we are to publish outcomes responsibly it is essential the data are accurate, valid and provide meaningful information on the outcomes measured. Measures should be specific, sensitive, timely, and easy to collect – ideally as part of routine care.¹² There should be agreed national standards of data collection and definition across New Zealand, and agreed risk adjustment models to ensure case complexity is accounted for. The benefits from this work should outweigh the potentially substantial costs.¹³

Having selected a suitable measure and approach to risk adjustment, the statistical requirements for identifying differences between the performances of individuals, or between the performance of one individual and a given standard, are:

1. a sufficiently high rate of the relevant outcome (eg, mortality)
2. a high enough case load for adequate statistical power
3. an understanding of the prior probability of the condition to be identified (eg, poor performance).

There are statistical challenges to public reporting of outcomes by individual clinicians because typical caseloads will not generate enough statistical power to reliably identify potential poorer performers.¹⁴ The typical case loads and mortality rates for most procedures fall well below these requirements for most individual clinicians.

Cardiac surgery is more suitable for this type of reporting than most other specialties. In particular first-time coronary artery surgery is relatively common and relatively standardised. Mortality is one appropriate outcome, can be risk-adjusted and occurs at a relatively high rate. However, United Kingdom (UK) cardiac surgeons would have to annually perform three times the number of procedures they typically do to generate enough statistical power to detect eight in ten true poor performers. This problem is only exaggerated for other specialties. The New Zealand situation is essentially similar. There is a danger of injustice or conversely of false complacency if a poor performer is not identified. Lengthier reporting periods (one solution to the problem of insufficient statistical power) may miss recent deterioration, and measures collected over a long period risk losing relevance.¹⁴

The alternative solution is to aggregate to the team, unit or hospital level, which increases statistical power without losing immediacy.^{14,15} Even then, some units may be too small. For procedures that carry substantial risk (eg, >1% mortality rates), consideration should be given to amalgamation to ensure all units have sufficient volumes to provide reliable estimates of outcome. This view is further supported by data that suggest volume itself may be a factor in determining outcome.¹⁶⁻¹⁸ This is one reason why the Commission recommends this level of publication.

Collection and registries

Clinical registries are a structured ongoing collection of personal health data from all patients in a clinically defined population. Once established, registries can provide benchmarked, risk-adjusted outcomes, and can be used as the basis of public reporting.¹⁹ They are work-intensive and expensive.^{10,12,19,20} Currently New Zealand has a few established clinical registries but there is no consistent approach nationally. Most data currently available for public reporting are derived from administrative datasets and lack the depth and detail of registry data.

Bridging administrative data collection and clinical data collection is difficult, and has thus far failed in the UK National Health Service (NHS).^{21,22} Building more registries may address the medium-term need, but in the long run IT systems that capture the required information as part of routine care are needed, as some district health boards (DHBs) are pursuing, and investment in this approach may be more prudent. Discussion with the National Health IT Board must happen as part of the early stages of this process.



3. INFORMED CONSENT AND THE AUTONOMY OF PATIENTS OR CONSUMERS

There is no clear consensus on whether information about individual surgeons' performance, such as volume, casemix, mortality and complication rates is required to gain informed consent. In the United States (US), case law is evolving with conspicuous differences between states.^{16, 23-27} In the UK and Australia the courts have lately moved away from a standard of adequate disclosure determined by the profession to one determined by what 'the prudent patient' would want to know in the given circumstances.^{28, 29} The latter part of this test implies that context is important and the matter needs to be decided on a case-by-case basis rather than in a universal or general way.

In New Zealand the Code of Health and Disability Services Consumers' Rights 1996 ('the Code') is the key source of law on informed consent supplemented by other legislation and case law. Informed consent is typically viewed as a continuum and a process of information-sharing.³⁰ Under the Code a patient has the right to be fully informed but also to effective communication. Thus, the information that is best suited to help any particular patient in making a decision will depend on the patient's context.

There are grounds that there is no ethical obligation to provide performance information for informed consent because of imprecision of measurement: the individual surgeon's performance alters depending on the team and institution they operate in,³¹ and measures are too late and not accurate enough.^{27, 32}

Even if limited sets of data were provided on some specialities using statistical approaches such as funnel plots, as with cardiac surgery in the UK, many patients may have insufficient statistical knowledge to interpret the information correctly. The limitation in choice within our public hospitals is also relevant. Patients may decline treatment, but it would be unfortunate if misinterpretation of data that was presented too simplistically resulted in patients declining treatment that would in fact be of value to them.

The relevant information for most patients may simply be that adequate processes are in place to ensure the competence of all practitioners (see 'Accountability' below).

4. USING DATA TO DRIVE IMPROVED OUTCOMES AND IMPROVE QUALITY

To change outcomes, behaviour has to change. Public reporting may change behaviours by patients or providers.

Patients may:

- choose better quality providers and force lower-quality providers to improve or leave the market
- gain or lose trust and thus potentially respond with more or less compliance with treatment regimens
- access published information at different levels due to literacy, leading to increased inequities in outcomes.

Providers (whether individual or institutional) may:

- improve the quality of services
- cease to provide lower-quality services
- respond perversely – for example, by reorganising services to reduce exposure to riskier patients, or changing data recording practice to give the impression of a riskier casemix and thus better relative outcomes.

Changed behaviours by patients or consumers

The evidence is mixed but suggests consumer decision making is not substantially influenced by public reporting on health care quality.³³⁻³⁵ Though consumers and the public are in favour of public reporting, in practice they tend not to know about³⁶ or search for the information.^{11, 37} They sometimes fail to understand it^{7, 38-40} and/or mistrust the source agencies.⁴¹ They make little use of it in actual decisions as choice is not always

a feasible option.⁴¹⁻⁴³ Indeed, consumer choice of physician has been described as a 'black box' – it could not be explained.⁴⁴ There is, however, some evidence of choosing better-rated providers when there is thoughtful presentation of the information.^{15, 45-48} Differential access to such reports, perhaps because of differences in health literacy, may have led to inequities by race and socioeconomic status in certain jurisdictions.^{12, 49-54}

Quality improvement and public reporting

Evidence shows public reporting of performance data stimulates quality improvement activity at the provider level, but not at an individual level.^{52, 55} Public reporting is more likely to be associated with changes in health care provider behaviour than with selection of health services providers by patients or families.^{39, 41, 42, 48, 52, 56} Improvement after public reporting seems to be driven by reputational concerns: institutions that report publicly rather than internally tend to put more quality improvement projects in place, and tend to improve, regardless of any efforts to game such systems.^{45, 48, 56-61}

The New York State Cardiac Surgery Reporting System (NYS CSRS), the longest-running and most-studied such programme in the US, is a clinical registry with a quality improvement focus and a public reporting feature. Hospitals were the unit of reporting until a lawsuit forced reporting by individual surgeon. The NYS CSRS was associated with a 41 percent statewide fall in in-hospital mortality rates for coronary artery bypass graft (CABG) surgery in three years,^{10, 12, 18, 62, 63} though the causes have been debated.^{45, 64-67} Other similar statewide public reporting programmes, particularly in California, have been associated with improved outcomes for mortality following cardiac surgery.⁶⁸⁻⁷³ Over the same period, mortality has steadily improved in many units around the world, in cardiac surgery and in surgery generally, so many factors may be at play.⁷⁴

Public reporting of individual surgeons' outcomes in the UK was stimulated by the paediatric cardiac surgery scandal at Bristol Royal Infirmary and subsequent inquiry.⁷⁵ The Department of Health informed consultants of their intention to publish performance information at the level of consultant teams.²¹ The Society for Cardiothoracic Surgery in Great Britain and Ireland (SCTS) responded quickly, having data systems in place.^{58, 76} The Dr Foster organisation published mortality rates for coronary artery surgery by hospital in 2001, and a Freedom of Information Act request in 2005 led to publication of mortality data for coronary artery surgery for all UK surgeons, named individually. Outcomes have clearly improved in the NHS since then,⁷⁷⁻⁷⁹ despite an increasing complexity of casemix, but a causal link has not been established. As indicated above, results have also improved in other countries over this time period. Concerns remain over the potential for surgeons to become risk-averse and avoid high-risk patients,⁸⁰ or for gaming to occur with patients scored as higher risk to ensure better outcomes.⁸¹ Gaming behaviour has been considered a sign that incentives are strong and a measure is effective in discerning performance.⁸¹ If systems of performance measurement are taken seriously, and are designed to have an effect, approaches to counter gaming ought to be integral to the design.⁸²

Teams versus individuals in determining patient outcomes

There is increasing evidence that outcomes of surgery are less attributable to any single individual but instead depend on multidisciplinary teams and on the collaborative and institutional context in which surgery is done.²⁷ Failures in teamwork and communication underpin a high proportion of adverse events.^{83, 84, 172-174} Outcomes have been shown to vary by the institution and team a surgeon performs in.³¹ This is because many aspects of care other than the surgeon's performance are involved, and outcomes are dependent on failure to rescue rates, the influence of the anaesthetist, and postoperative care, among other considerations.^{61, 85-89}

The US Veterans Health Administration has discouraged surgeon-specific outcomes as they believe that performance cannot be separated from the institution.⁹⁰ Teamwork and training significantly reduce both morbidity and mortality and improve processes.⁹⁰

Enquiries into failures of care at Bristol Royal Infirmary and Stafford Hospital in the UK revealed lack of leadership, teamwork and the ability to work together effectively for the interests of patients as the key failings.^{75, 91-93}



If outcomes are dependent on the team and organisational factors rather than the individual, accountability to the public would appear to require publication at team or organisation level. Publishing the results of individual surgeons seems likely to promote individualistic behaviour, rather than team-oriented behaviour. If it is team-based medicine that is to be encouraged, it does not seem sensible to publish data based on one team member (M Seddon, personal communication, 6 July 2015).^{15, 55} Further, at a team level there may be sufficient data to reach meaningful statistical power and allow a timelier pick-up of issues.^{14, 15}

5. ACCOUNTABILITY

Health care practitioners, providers and regulators, and professional bodies are accountable to the public for safe, high quality services. The public rightly expects staff to be technically competent, use evidence-informed treatments, work ably within teams, have good communication skills, be caring, and maintain these skills over time.⁵ The relevant authorities should make the proper checks to ensure health care professionals remain competent and fit to practise.⁵

A number of varying processes are currently used to demonstrate doctors' ongoing competence continuously throughout their medical careers, from postgraduate training to specialist practice. The Council of Medical Colleges, the Medical Council of New Zealand and the Ministry of Health are working to better align and strengthen these processes.

These processes could be made more transparent with more visible evidence of participation and of the criteria used to assess acceptable performance. Appropriate data on the performance of individual practitioners may have a role in assuring standards within institutions or units. However, the interpretation of performance should be holistic and focused on early intervention to maintain standards rather than on waiting for red flags to identify problems after many patients have been harmed. There is evidence that publicly reported surgeon rankings of quality have not correlated with disciplinary rates and complaint rates, so some quality measures may not pick up disciplinary issues,⁹⁴ but the internal use of techniques such as variable life-adjusted CUSUM⁹⁵ to monitor outcomes on a case-by-case basis may be useful.

The Commission's view

Increased transparency and openness are among our core values. Most consumers and clinicians concur. We believe transparency and openness are best achieved by the public reporting of judiciously chosen, adequately risk-adjusted measures at the team, unit or organisational level. We discourage reporting at an individual level, as it is likely to be statistically unsound and counterproductive by undermining the teamwork we wish to encourage. Unit-level data would provide the necessary reassurance to the public and contribute to improvement in quality of our health care services. This view has been almost universally supported in feedback to our draft position paper.

Public reporting at the unit level would provide information needed for clinicians, organisations and central agencies to drive quality improvement. It could potentially lead to a meaningful national data set from which risk and benefit could be determined for common procedures, and assist in planning investment in health systems.

Publication needs to be in a manner that is meaningful and understandable to a wide range of people. Context must be explained. Results should be presented in different formats and media to ensure inequities are not increased through failure to address differences in health literacy and access to information.

We recommend that, through a co-design process, consumers, colleges, professional bodies and employers define a simple initial group of outcome and process measures for each specialty group.

These measures must reflect the different needs of the interested parties so all may agree separate or overlapping sets of consumer-, clinician- and organisation-focused measures. Once agreed, the information should be collected nationally in a standardised way. Reporting by DHB should be via their websites and annually in their quality accounts. These measures would complement the Commission's current suite of reporting, such as the quality and safety indicators and the New Zealand Atlas of Healthcare Variation. Measures should be kept under review and revised when necessary as part of the quality improvement journey.

Cost is important - money spent on this activity represents an opportunity cost in relation to other priorities for improving the quality of our health services. An assessment of what data are currently available and of what reporting could be undertaken currently from registries or other data sets should be made. Building more registries may address the medium-term need, but in the long run IT systems that capture the required information as part of routine care are needed, and investment in these may be more cost-effective. The National Health IT Board must be integral to this process.

The Commission supports the direction the Council of Medical Colleges, the Medical Council of New Zealand and the Ministry of Health are taking in strengthening and aligning processes to demonstrate doctors' ongoing competence, the outcomes of which we suggest should be made more transparent and publicly available. We also recommend strengthening of recertification and credentialing of health care practitioners. We suggest organisations should be asked to attest to the presence of such processes and to their confidence that all practitioners are participating and achieving acceptable standards.

Next steps

The Commission would like to work with the Ministry of Health to facilitate and help consumers, colleges, professional bodies and employers to define a simple initial group of outcome and process measures as described.

We propose the Commission facilitate this process by prototyping the development of measures, working with a few key DHBs and stakeholders in their development.

Public reporting is a complex and challenging area that is opened up by a seemingly simple and obvious request - to know. There are pitfalls and also opportunities ahead. The Commission supports increased transparency. But we must build, not destroy or divide. If we are to construct windows we must make the right decisions early on and proceed in a phased, consistent way, as architects and builders might, so those windows are well made, in the right places, and shine sufficient light upon the things that are useful to see.



References

1. Keogh B. 2008. Presidential Message: A decade of immunisation. Society for Cardiothoracic Surgery in Great Britain & Ireland.
URL: www.scts.org/_userfiles/pages/file/Presidential%20address-Keogh.pdf (accessed September 2015).
2. Chaudhry M, Gauld R, Horsburgh S. 2012. Hospital quality-of-care performance measurement and reporting: what New Zealand can learn from the United States and United Kingdom. *NZ Med J* 125(1366): 51–63.
3. Davies H, Marshall MN. 1999. Public disclosure of performance data: does the public get what the public wants? *The Lancet* 353(9165): 1639–40.
4. Bridgewater B, Hickey GL, Cooper G, et al. 2013. Publishing cardiac surgery mortality rates: lessons for other specialties. *BMJ* 346(feb28): f1139.
5. Health Quality and Safety Commission; Ministry of Health. Consumer workshop. 3 July 2015.
6. Sinaiko AD, Eastman D, Rosenthal MB. 2012. How report cards on physicians, physician groups, and hospitals can have greater impact on consumer choices. *Health Affairs* 31(3): 602–11.
7. Minami CA, Dahlke A, Bilimoria KY. 2015. Public Reporting in Surgery. *Annals of Surgery* 261(2): 241–2.
8. Chen J, Ou L, Hollis SJ. 2013. A systematic review of the impact of routine collection of patient reported outcome measures on patients, providers and health organisations in an oncologic setting. *BMC Health Services Research* 13(1): 211.
9. Greenhalgh J, Long AF, Flynn R. 2005. The use of patient reported outcome measures in routine clinical practice: lack of impact or lack of theory? *Soc Sci Med* 60(4): 833–43.
10. Hannan EL, Cozzens K, King SB 3rd, et al. 2012. The New York State cardiac registries: history, contributions, limitations, and lessons for future efforts to assess and publicly report healthcare outcomes. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 59(25): 2309–16.
11. Morsi E, Lindenauer PK, Rothberg MB. 2012. Primary care physicians' use of publicly reported quality data in hospital referral decisions. *J Hosp Med* 7(5): 370–5.
12. Shahian DM, Edwards FH, Jacobs JP, et al. 2011. Public Reporting of Cardiac Surgery Performance: Part 1–History, Rationale, Consequences. *Ann Thorac Surg* 92(3): S2–S11.
13. Neil DA, Clarke S, Oakley J. 2007. *Against the Informed Consent Argument for Surgeon Report Cards. Informed Consent and Clinician Accountability*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. p 147–56.
14. Walker K, Neuburger J, Groene O, et al. 2013. Public reporting of surgeon outcomes: low numbers of procedures lead to false complacency. *The Lancet* 382(9905): 1674–7.
15. Godlee F. 2012. Measure your team's performance, and publish the results. *BMJ* 345: e4590.
16. Banja JD. 2015. Disclosure of experience as a risk factor in informed consent for neurosurgery: the case of Johnson v. Kokemoor. *Virtual Mentor* 17(1): 69–73.
17. Birkmeyer JD, Stukel TA, Siewers AE, et al. 2003. Surgeon volume and operative mortality in the United States. *N Engl J Med* 349(22): 2117–27.
18. Hannan EL, Siu AL, Kumar D, et al. 1995. The decline in coronary artery bypass graft surgery mortality in New York State. The role of surgeon volume. *JAMA* 273(3): 209–13.
19. University of Melbourne. 2013. *Registry Science Handbook*. Melbourne: University of Melbourne.
20. Bridgewater B, Livesey S, Kinsman R. 2011. *Maintaining patients' trust: modern medical professionalism*. Society for Cardiothoracic Surgery in Great Britain and Ireland.
21. Department of Health. *Learning from Bristol: The Department of Health's Response to the Report of the Public Inquiry into children's heart surgery at the Bristol Royal Infirmary 1984–1995*. UK: Department of Health.

22. Maughan A. 2010. Six reasons why the NHS National Programme for IT failed. *ComputerWeekly.com*. URL: <http://www.computerweekly.com/opinion/Six-reasons-why-the-NHS-National-Programme-for-IT-failed> (accessed September 2015).
23. Johnson v Kokemoor, 199 Wis2d 615, 545 NW2d 495. 1996. Supreme Court of Wisconsin.
24. Avila v Flangas, No. 04-95-00106-CV, 1996 WL 63036, at *1 (Tex App). 1996. Texas Court of Appeals.
25. Duttry v. Patterson, 741 A.2d 199. 1999. Supreme Court of Pennsylvania.
26. Bal BS, Choma TJ. 2012. What to disclose? Revisiting informed consent. *Clin Orthop Relat Res* 470(5): 1346-56.
27. Burger I, Schill K, Goodman S. 2007. Disclosure of individual surgeon's performance rates during informed consent: ethical and epistemological considerations. *Annals of Surgery* 245(4): 507-13.
28. Edozien LC. 2015. UK law on consent finally embraces the prudent patient standard. *BMJ* 350: h2877.
29. Sokol DK. 2015. Update on the UK law on consent. *BMJ* 350: h1481.
30. Governor-General. 1996. *Health and Disability Commissioner (Code of Health and Disability Services Consumers' Rights) Regulations (SR 1996/78)*. Wellington: Governor-General.
31. Huckman RS, Pisano GP. 2006. The firm specificity of individual performance: evidence from cardiac surgery. *Management Science* 52(4): 473-88.
32. Lagu T, Goff SL, Hannon NS, et al. 2013. A mixed-methods analysis of patient reviews of hospital care in England: implications for public reporting of health care quality data in the United States. *Jt Comm J Qual Patient Saf* 39(1): 7-15.
33. Henderson A, Henderson S. Provision of a surgeon's performance data for people considering elective surgery. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2015, Issue 2, Art. No. CD006327.
34. Ketelaar NA, Faber MJ, Flottorp S, et al. 2011. Public release of performance data in changing the behaviour of healthcare consumers, professionals or organisations. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2011, Issue 11, Art. No. CD004538.
35. Alexander JA, Hearld LR, Hasnain-Wynia R, et al. Consumer Trust in Sources of Physician Quality Information. *Medical Care Research and Review* 68(4): 421-40.
36. Schneider EC, Epstein AM. 1998. Use of public performance reports: a survey of patients undergoing cardiac surgery. *JAMA* 279(20): 1638-42.
37. Mannion R, Goddard M. 2003. Public disclosure of comparative clinical performance data: lessons from the Scottish experience. *J Eval Clin Pract* 9(2): 277-86.
38. Donelan K, Rogers RS, Eisenhauer A, et al. 2011. Consumer Comprehension of Surgeon Performance Data for Coronary Bypass Procedures. *Ann Thorac Surg* 91(5): 1400-06.
39. Faber M, Bosch M, Wollersheim H, et al. 2009. Public reporting in health care: how do consumers use quality-of-care information? *Medical Care* 47(1): 1-8.
40. Robinowitz DL, Dudley RA. 2006. Public reporting of provider performance: can its impact be made greater? *Ann Rev Public Health* 27(1): 517-36.
41. Marshall MN. 2004. How do we maximize the impact of the public reporting of quality of care? *Int J Qual Health Care* 16(suppl_1): i57-i63.
42. Marshall MN, Shekelle PG, Leatherman S, et al. 2000. The public release of performance data: what do we expect to gain? A review of the evidence. *JAMA* 283(14): 1866-74.
43. Seddon M. 2012. Reporting hospital performance – a balancing act between accountability and quality improvement. *NZ Med J* 125(1366): 5-8.
44. Schlesinger M, Kanouse DE, Martino SC, et al. 2013. Complexity, public reporting, and choice of doctors: a look inside the blackest box of consumer behavior. *Med Care Res Rev* 71(5 Suppl): 38S-64S.



45. Hamblin R. 2007. Measurements, incentives, and improvement: what are the advantages, what are the pitfalls and what might work? A review of incentivized measurement schemes in the US and UK since 1990. Unpublished manuscript.
46. Huckman RS, Kelley MA. 2013. Public reporting, consumerism, and patient empowerment. *N Engl J Med* 369(20): 1875-7.
47. Hussey PS, Luft HS, McNamara P. 2014. Public reporting of provider performance at a crossroads in the United States: summary of current barriers and recommendations on how to move forward. *Med Care Res Rev* 71(5 Suppl): 5S-16S.
48. Hibbard JH, Stockard J, Tusler M. 2005. Hospital performance reports: impact on quality, market share, and reputation. *Health Affairs* 24(4): 1150-60.
49. Christianson J, Maeng D, Abraham J, et al. 2014. What influences the awareness of physician quality information? Implications for Medicare. *Medicare & Medicaid Research Review* 4(2): E1-E15.
50. Davies HTO. 2002. Health care report cards: implications for vulnerable patient groups and the organizations providing them care. *J Health Polit Policy Law* 27(3): 379-400.
51. Dimick J, Ruhter J, Sarrazin MV, et al. 2013. Black patients more likely than whites to undergo surgery at low-quality hospitals in segregated regions. *Health Affairs* 32(6): 1046-53.
52. Fung CH. 2008. Systematic review: the evidence that publishing patient care performance data improves quality of care. *Ann Intern Med* 148(2): 111.
53. SteelFisher GK, Schneider EC, Zaslavsky AM, et al. 2009. Can quality reports help address health care disparities? Use and awareness of comparative quality information by African Americans. *J Health Care Poor Underserved* 20(3): 884-95.
54. Werner RM. 2005. Racial profiling: the unintended consequences of coronary artery bypass graft report cards. *Circulation* 111(10): 1257-63.
55. Totten AM, Wagner J, Tiwari A, et al. 2012. Closing the quality gap: revisiting the state of the science (vol. 5: public reporting as a quality improvement strategy). *Evid Rep Technol Assess (Full Rep)* (208.5): 1-645.
56. Contandriopoulos D, Champagne F, Denis JL. 2014. The multiple causal pathways between performance measures' use and effects. *Med Care Res Rev* 71(1): 3-20.
57. Berwick DM, James B, Coye MJ. 2003. Connections between quality measurement and improvement. *Med Care* 41(1 Suppl): I30-8.
58. Bevan G, Hood C. 2006. Have targets improved performance in the English NHS? *BMJ* 332(7538): 419-22.
59. Hamblin R. 2007. Publishing 'quality' measures: how it works and when it does not? *Int J Qual Health Care* 19(4): 183-6.
60. Hamblin R. 2008. Regulation, measurements and incentives. The experience in the US and UK: does context matter? *J R Soc Promot Health* 128(6): 291-8.
61. Hibbard JH, Stockard J, Tusler M. 2003. Does publicizing hospital performance stimulate quality improvement efforts? *Health Aff (Millwood)* 22(2): 84-94.
62. Chassin MR. 2002. Achieving and sustaining improved quality: lessons from New York State and cardiac surgery. *Health Aff (Millwood)* 21(4): 40-51.
63. Hannan EL, Kumar D, Racz M, et al. 1994. New York state's cardiac surgery reporting system: Four years later. *Ann Thorac Surg* 58(6): 1852-7.
64. Omoigui NA, Miller DP, Brown KJ, et al. 1996. Outmigration for coronary bypass surgery in an era of public dissemination of clinical outcomes. *Circulation* 93(1): 27-33.
65. Burack JH, Impellizzeri P, Home P, et al. 1999. Public reporting of surgical mortality: a survey of New York State cardiothoracic surgeons. *Ann Thorac Surg* 68(4): 1195-200.

66. Epstein AJ. 2006. Do cardiac surgery report cards reduce mortality? Assessing the evidence. *Med Care Res Rev* 63(4): 403-26.
67. Narins CR, Dozier AM, Ling FS, et al. 2005. The influence of public reporting of outcome data on medical decision making by physicians. *Arch Intern Med* 165(1): 83.
68. Harvard Medical School. 2011. *Adult coronary artery bypass graft surgery in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts: fiscal year 2009 report*. Boston: Harvard Medical School.
69. California's Office of Statewide Health Planning and Development. 2011. *The California report on coronary artery bypass graft surgery: 2007 hospital data*. California: OSHPD.
70. New Jersey Department of Health and Senior Services, Office of Health Care Quality Assessment. 2011. *Cardiac surgery in New Jersey: 2008*. Trenton: New Jersey Department of Health and Senior Services.
71. Pennsylvania Health Care Cost Containment Council. 2010. *Cardiac surgery in Pennsylvania 2007-2008*. Harrisburg: Pennsylvania Health Care Cost Containment Council.
72. Carey JS, Danielsen B, Junod FL, et al. 2006. The California Cardiac Surgery and Intervention Project: evolution of a public reporting program. *Am Surg* 72(10): 978-83.
73. Romano PS, Marcin JP, Dai JJ, et al. 2011. Impact of public reporting of coronary artery bypass graft surgery performance data on market share, mortality, and patient selection. *Medical Care* 49(12): 1118-25.
74. Weiser TG, Semel ME, Simon AE, et al. 2011. In-hospital death following inpatient surgical procedures in the United States, 1996-2006. *World J Surg* 35(9): 1950-6.
75. Kennedy I. 2001. *The report of the public inquiry into children's heart surgery at the Bristol Royal Infirmary 1984-1995: learning from Bristol*. ('The Kennedy report'.)
URL: http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20090811143745/http://www.bristol-inquiry.org.uk/final_report/the_report.pdf (accessed September 2015).
76. Keogh B, Kinsman R. 2002. *National adult cardiac surgical database report 2000-2001*. Society of Cardiothoracic Surgeons of Great Britain and Ireland. London: Society of Cardiothoracic Surgeon of Great Britain and Ireland.
77. Society for Cardiothoracic Surgery in Great Britain and Ireland (SCTS). *Blue Book Online*. 2015.
URL: <http://bluebook.scts.org/> (accessed September 21).
78. Bridgewater B, Grayson AD, Brooks N, et al. 2007. Has the publication of cardiac surgery outcome data been associated with changes in practice in northwest England: an analysis of 25 730 patients undergoing CABG surgery under 30 surgeons over eight years. *Heart* 93(6): 744-8.
79. Brown KL, Crowe S, Franklin R, et al. 2015. Trends in 30-day mortality rate and case mix for paediatric cardiac surgery in the UK between 2000 and 2010. *Open Heart* 2(1): e000157-e57.
80. Boseley S. 2015, 30 January. Surgeons ask NHS England to rethink policy of publishing patients' death rates. *Guardian*.
URL: <http://www.theguardian.com/society/2015/jan/30/surgeons-nhs-england-patients-death-rates-bruce-keogh-jeremy-hunt-health> (accessed September 2015).
81. Mears A. 2014. Gaming and targets in the English NHS. *Universal Journal of Management* 2(7): 293-301.
82. Bevan G, Hamblin R. 2009. Hitting and missing targets by ambulance services for emergency calls: effects of different systems of performance measurement within the UK. *J R Stat Soc Ser A Stat Soc* 172(1): 161-90.
83. Joint Commission. 2006. *Joint Commission 2006 Sentinel Event Statistics 1995-2005*. Washington: Joint Commission.
84. Wolf FA, Way LW, Stewart L. 2010. The efficacy of medical team training: improved team performance and decreased operating room delays: a detailed analysis of 4863 cases. *Ann Surg* 252(3): 477-83; discussion 83-5.



85. Wong SL, Revels SL, Yin H, et al. 2015. Variation in hospital mortality rates with inpatient cancer surgery. *Annals of Surgery* 261(4): 632–6.
86. Glance LG, Kellermann AL, Hannan EL, et al. 2015. The impact of anesthesiologists on coronary artery bypass graft surgery outcomes. *Anesth Analg* 120(3): 526–33.
87. Leslie K, Merry AF. 2015. Cardiac surgery: all for one and one for all. *Anesth Analg* 120(3): 504–6.
88. Merry AF, Ramage MC, Whitlock RM, et al. 1992. First-time coronary artery bypass grafting: the anaesthetist as a risk factor. *Br J Anaesth* 68(1): 6–12.
89. Slogoff S, Keats AS. 1985. Does perioperative myocardial ischemia lead to postoperative myocardial infarction? *Anesthesiology* 62(2): 107–14.
90. Neily J, Mills PD, Young-Xu Y, et al. 2010. Association between implementation of a medical team training program and surgical mortality. *JAMA* 304(15): 1693.
91. Keogh B. 2004. The legacy of Bristol: public disclosure of individual surgeons' results. *BMJ* 329(7463): 450–4.
92. Berwick D. 2013. *A promise to learn – a commitment to act: improving the safety of patients in England*. National Advisory Group on the Safety of Patients in England. UK Department of Health. URL: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/berwick-review-into-patient-safety> (accessed September 2015.)
93. Francis R. 2013. *The Mid Staffordshire NHS Foundation Trust Public Inquiry*. URL: <http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20150407084003/http://www.midstaffpublicinquiry.com/report> (accessed September 2015). London: The Mid Staffordshire NHS Foundation Trust Public Inquiry.
94. Roberts RG, Friedsam D, Beasley JW, et al. 2006. The state of quality reports: comparing states by their rankings. *WMJ* 105(8): 60–6.
95. Kang N, Tsang VT, Gallivan S, et al. 2006. Quality assurance in congenital heart surgery. *Eur J Cardiothorac Surg* 29(5): 693–7; discussion 97–8.
96. The Dartmouth Atlas Project. URL: <http://www.dartmouthatlas.org/> (accessed September 2015). Dartmouth: The Dartmouth Institute for Health Policy and Clinical Practice.
97. Health Quality & Safety Commission. 2015. *NZ Atlas of Healthcare Variation*. URL: www.hqsc.govt.nz/our-programmes/health-quality-evaluation/projects/atlas-of-healthcare-variation.
98. Jackson G, Dalbeth N, Te Karu L, et al. 2014. Variation in gout care in Aotearoa New Zealand: a national analysis of quality markers. *NZ Med J* 127(1404): 37–47.
99. Dickie EE, Simcock JW. 2013. Reduction mammoplasty and resource allocation – are patients being treated fairly? An examination of the current New Zealand situation, and looking towards the future. *NZ Med J* 126(1374): 46–55.
100. Connolly MJ, Kenealy T, Barber PA, et al. 2011. National variability in provision of health services for major long-term conditions in New Zealand (a report from the ABCC NZ study). *NZ Med J* 124(1344): 16–35.
101. Wells S, Jackson R. 2011. Unwarranted variation in healthcare organisation and practice for long-term conditions. *NZ Med J* 124(1344): 6–9.
102. Raymont A. 2008. Hospital discharges in New Zealand 1991–2005: changes over time and variation between districts. *NZ Med J* 121(1279): 66–74.
103. Love T, Crampton P, Salmond C, et al. 2005. Patterns of medical practice variation: variability in referral for back pain by New Zealand general practitioners. *NZ Med J* 118(1212): U1381.
104. Harrison A. 2004. Provision of rheumatology services in New Zealand. *NZ Med J* 117(1192): U846.
105. Ellis C, Devlin G, Matsis P, et al. 2004. Acute Coronary Syndrome patients in New Zealand receive less invasive management when admitted to hospitals without invasive facilities. *NZ Med J* 117(1197): U954.

106. Paterson R. 2012. *The Good Doctor*. Auckland: Auckland University Press.
107. Shekelle PG, Pronovost PJ, Wachter RM, et al. 2013. The top patient safety strategies that can be encouraged for adoption now. *Ann Intern Med* 158(5 Pt 2): 365–8.
108. Tavare A. 2012. Where are we with transparency over performance of doctors and institutions? *BMJ* 345: e4464.
109. Hannan EL, Kilburn Jr. H, Racz M, et al. 1994. Improving the outcomes of coronary artery bypass surgery in New York State. *JAMA* 271(10): 761–6.
110. Lansky D. 1998. Measuring what matters to the public. *Health Aff (Millwood)* 17(4): 40–1.
111. Schwartz LM, Woloshin S, Birkmeyer JD. 2005. How do elderly patients decide where to go for major surgery? Telephone interview survey. *BMJ* 331(7520): 821.
112. Shahian DM, Normand SL. 2012. Autonomy, beneficence, justice, and the limits of provider profiling. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 59(25): 2383–6.
113. Clarke S, Oakley J. 2004. Informed consent and surgeons' performance. *J Med Philos* 29(1): 11–35.
114. Brown DL, Clarke S, Oakley J. 2012. Cardiac surgeon report cards, referral for cardiac surgery, and the ethical responsibilities of cardiologists. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 59(25): 2378–82.
115. NHS Choices. URL: <http://www.nhs.uk/Pages/HomePage.aspx> (accessed September 2015).
116. Khan OA, Iyengar S, Pontefract DE, et al. 2007. Impact of surgeon-specific data reporting on surgical training. *Ann R Coll Surg Engl* 89(8): 796–8.
117. Royal New Zealand College of General Practitioners. 2015. *Transparency of information related to medical/service interventions – College submission*. Wellington: Royal New Zealand College of General Practitioners.
118. Bardach NS, Hibbard JH, Greaves F, et al. 2015. Sources of traffic and visitors' preferences regarding online public reports of quality: web analytics and online survey results. *J Med Internet Res* 17(5): e102.
119. Emmert M, Meier F, Pisch F, et al. 2013. Physician choice making and characteristics associated with using physician-rating websites: cross-sectional study. *J Med Internet Res* 15(8): e187.
120. Grabner-Kräuter S, Waiguny MKJ. 2015. Insights into the impact of online physician reviews on patients' decision making: randomized experiment. *J Med Internet Res* 17(4): e93.
121. Mannion R, Davies HTO. 2002. Reporting health care performance: learning from the past, prospects for the future. *J Eval Clin Pract* 8(2): 215–28.
122. The Lancet. 2011. Public reporting of surgical outcomes. *The Lancet* 377(9772): 1126.
123. Davis MM, Hibbard JH, Milstein A. 2007. Consumer tolerance for inaccuracy in physician performance ratings: one size fits none. *Issue Brief Cent Stud Health Syst Change* (110): 1–5.
124. Friedberg MW, Damberg CL. 2012. A five-point checklist to help performance reports incentivize improvement and effectively guide patients. *Health Affairs* 31(3): 612–18.
125. Fung CH, Lim YW, Mattke S, et al. 2008. Systematic review: the evidence that publishing patient care performance data improves quality of care. *Ann Intern Med* 148(2): 111–23.
126. Accident Compensation Corporation. 12 August 2015. *Comments on HQSC Paper on Quality Reporting*. Wellington: Accident Compensation Corporation.
127. Casalino LP, Elster A, Eisenberg A, et al. 2007. Will pay-for-performance and quality reporting affect health care disparities? *Health Affairs* 26(3): w405–w14.
128. Brown DL, Clarke S, Oakley J. 2012. Cardiac surgeon report cards, referral for cardiac surgery, and the ethical responsibilities of cardiologists. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 59(25): 2378–82.
129. Brown DL, Epstein AM, Schneider EC. 2013. Influence of cardiac surgeon report cards on patient referral by cardiologists in New York State after 20 years of public reporting. *Circulation: Cardiovascular Quality and Outcomes* 6(6): 643–8.



130. Rothberg MB, Benjamin EM, Lindenauer PK. 2009. Public reporting of hospital quality: Recommendations to benefit patients and hospitals. *J Hosp Med* 4(9): 541-5.
131. Black N. 2013. Patient reported outcome measures could help transform healthcare. *BMJ* 346: f167.
132. Health Quality & Safety Commission. 2014. *Patient experience survey – methodology and procedures*. URL: www.hqsc.govt.nz/our-programmes/health-quality-evaluation/publications-and-resources/publication/1658.
133. Fanjiang G, von Glahn T, Chang H, et al. 2007. Providing patients web-based data to inform physician choice: if you build it, will they come? *J Gen Intern Med* 22(10): 1463-6.
134. Murphy PJ. 2012. Measuring and recording outcome. *Br J Anaesth* 109(1): 92-8.
135. Auras S, de Cruppé W, Blum K, et al. 2012. Mandatory quality reports in Germany from the hospitals' point of view: a cross-sectional observational study. *BMC Health Services Research* 12(1): 378.
136. Society for Cardiothoracic Surgery in Great Britain & Ireland (SCTS). National Adult Cardiac Surgical Database. URL: <http://www.scts.org/> (accessed September 2015).
137. Fine LG. 2003. How to evaluate and improve the quality and credibility of an outcomes database: validation and feedback study on the UK Cardiac Surgery Experience. *BMJ* 326(7379): 25-8.
138. Chou E, Abboudi H, Shamim Khan M, et al. 2015. Should surgical outcomes be published? *J R Soc Med* 108(4): 127-35.
139. Epstein RM. 2002. Defining and assessing professional competence. *JAMA* 287(2): 226.
140. Dubinsky I, Jennings K, Greengarten M, et al. 2010. 360-degree physician performance assessment. *Healthc Q* 13(2): 71-6.
141. *Health Practitioners Competence Assurance Act*. 2003: New Zealand.
142. Exworthy M, Smith G, Gabel J, et al. 2010. Disclosing clinical performance: the case of cardiac surgery. *J Health Organ Manag* 24(6): 571-83.
143. Solberg LI, Mosser G, McDonald S. 1997. The three faces of performance measurement: improvement, accountability, and research. *Jt Comm J Qual Improv* 23(3): 135-47.
144. O'Leary DS. 1995. Measurement and accountability: taking careful aim. *Jt Comm J Qual Improv* 21(7): 354-7.
145. Chassin MR, Hannan EL, DeBuono BA. 1996. Benefits and hazards of reporting medical outcomes publicly. *N Engl J M* 334(6): 394-8.
146. Hafner JM, Williams SC, Koss RG, et al. 2011. The perceived impact of public reporting hospital performance data: interviews with hospital staff. *Int J Qual Health Care* 23(6): 697-704.
147. Tu JV, Donovan LR, Lee DS, et al. 2009. Effectiveness of public report cards for improving the quality of cardiac care: the EFFECT study: a randomized trial. *JAMA* 302(21): 2330-7.
148. Dahlke AR, Chung JW, Holl JL, et al. 2014. Evaluation of initial participation in public reporting of American College of Surgeons NSQIP surgical outcomes on Medicare's Hospital Compare website. *J Am Coll Surg* 218(3): 374-80.e5.
149. Glance LG, Dick A, Mukamel DB, et al. 2007. Are high-quality cardiac surgeons less likely to operate on high-risk patients compared to low-quality surgeons? Evidence from New York State. *Health Serv Res* 43(1p1): 300-12.
150. Jha AK, Epstein AM. 2006. The predictive accuracy of the New York State coronary artery bypass surgery report-card system. *Health Affairs* 25(3): 844-55.
151. Mukamel DB, Mushlin AI. 1998. Quality of care information makes a difference. *Medical Care* 36(7): 945-54.
152. Mukamel DB, Mushlin AI, Weimer D, et al. 2000. Do quality report cards play a role in HMOs' contracting practices? Evidence from New York State. *Health Serv Res* 35(1 Pt 2): 319-32.

153. Mukamel DB, Weimer DL, Zwanziger J, et al. 2004. Quality report cards, selection of cardiac surgeons, and racial disparities: a study of the publication of the New York State cardiac surgery reports. *Inquiry* 41(4): 435-46.
154. Mukamel DB, Weimer DL, Zwanziger J, et al. 2002. Quality of cardiac surgeons and managed care contracting practices. *Health Serv Res* 37(5): 1129-44.
155. Epstein AJ. 2010. Effects of report cards on referral patterns to cardiac surgeons. *J Health Econ* 29(5): 718-31.
156. Wang J, Hockenberry J, Chou S-Y, et al. 2011. Do bad report cards have consequences? Impacts of publicly reported provider quality information on the CABG market in Pennsylvania. *J Health Econ* 30(2): 392-407.
157. Sofaer S, Crofton C, Goldstein E, et al. 2005. What do consumers want to know about the quality of care in hospitals? *Health Serv Res* 40(6p2): 2018-36.
158. Maytham G, Kessar N. 2011. A change in opinion on surgeon's performance indicators. *Interactive cardiovascular and thoracic surgery* 12(4): 586-90.
159. Hannan EL, Kilburn H, Lindsey ML, et al. 1992. Clinical versus administrative data bases for CABG surgery. *Med Care* 30(10): 892-907.
160. Hannan EL, Racz MJ, Jollis JG, et al. 1997. Using Medicare claims data to assess provider quality for CABG surgery: does it work well enough? *Health Serv Res* 31(6): 659-78.
161. Hannan EL. 1990. Adult open heart surgery in New York State. *JAMA* 264(21): 2768.
162. Dziuban SW, McIlduff JB, Miller SJ, et al. 1994. How a New York cardiac surgery program uses outcomes data. *Ann Thorac Surg* 58(6): 1871-6.
163. Dimick JB, Ghaferi AA, Osborne NH, et al. 2012. Reliability adjustment for reporting hospital outcomes with surgery. *Annals of Surgery* 255(4): 703-07.
164. California Cardiac Surgery and Intervention Project (CCSIP).
URL: <http://www.californiacardiacsurgery.com/CCSIP2014/> (accessed September 2015).
California: California Society of Thoracic Surgeons (CASTS).
165. Ray S, Simpson I. 2012. Professional societies can lead the way on transparency but will need support. *BMJ* 345: e5075.
166. McCrum ML, Joynt K, Orav E, et al. 2013. Mortality for publicly reported conditions and overall hospital mortality rates. *JAMA Intern Med* 173(14): 1351.
167. Westaby S, De Silva R, Petrou M, et al. 2014. Surgeon-specific mortality data disguise wider failings in delivery of safe surgical services. *Eur J Cardiothorac Surg* 47(2): 341-5.
168. Aylin P, Alexandrescu R, Jen MH, et al. 2013. Day of week of procedure and 30 day mortality for elective surgery: retrospective analysis of hospital episode statistics. *BMJ* 346: f2424.
169. Armour Forse R, Bramble JD, McQuillan R. 2011. Team training can improve operating room performance. *Surgery* 150(4): 771-8.
170. Weaver SJ, Dy SM, Rosen MA. 2014. Team-training in healthcare: a narrative synthesis of the literature. *BMJ Qual Saf* 23(5): 359-72.
171. Merry AF, Weller J, Mitchell SJ. 2014. Improving the quality and safety of patient care in cardiac anesthesia. *J Cardiothorac Vasc Anesth* 28(5): 1341-51.
172. Wahr JA, Prager RL, Abernathy JH 3rd, et al. 2013. Patient safety in the cardiac operating room: human factors and teamwork: a scientific statement from the American Heart Association. *Circulation* 128(10): 1139-69.
173. Martinez EA, Shore A, Colantuoni E, et al. 2011. Cardiac surgery errors: results from the UK National Reporting and Learning System. *Int J Qual Health Care* 23(2): 151-8.
174. Mazzocco K, Petitti DB, Fong KT, et al. 2009. Surgical team behaviors and patient outcomes. *Am J Surg* 197(5): 678-85.

