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1 **Review Article**

2

3 **Simulation training in laparoscopic surgery**

4

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30

31 **Summary**

32 This article summarises the role of simulation-based training in laparoscopic surgery,
33 exploring elements for curriculum development, implementation, and current practice.

34

35 **Keywords**

36 simulation, laparoscopy, education

37

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41

42

1 **Abstract**

2

3 **Introduction**

4 This article summarises the evidence surrounding the development of simulation-
5 based training curriculums in laparoscopic surgery.

6

7 **Summary**

8 Laparoscopic or “keyhole” surgery involves the use of small incisions and delicate
9 instruments to perform abdominal surgery. This minimally invasive procedure has
10 significant benefits in patient outcomes over open surgery. However, the learning
11 curve for acquiring skills in laparoscopy differs from open surgery, primarily due to
12 the greater requirements for manual dexterity and coordination. Additionally, the
13 transference of skills from open to laparoscopic surgery is minimal, indicating the
14 need for new methods of training. There has been a growing body of research to
15 suggest that simulation-based training can supplement the early portion of the
16 learning curve for acquiring laparoscopic skills and is most effective if delivered in a
17 structured course. Yet, there is still no standardised laparoscopic simulation course in
18 Australia nor a framework for curriculum development. This review explores current
19 evidence surrounding the development and implementation of simulation-based
20 education curriculums in laparoscopic surgery.

21

22

23 **Learning points**

- 24 • Simulation is a tool that can supplement the early portion of the learning curve
25 in laparoscopic surgical training.
- 26 • The development of a laparoscopic simulation curriculum should involve the
27 consideration of simulation modality, cost, transfer of skills into the operating
28 theatre, and long-term retention.
- 29 • Further high-powered, long-term trials are needed to characterise how to
30 optimise these elements in a training curriculum.

1 Introduction

2
3 Simulation is a technique used to “replace or amplify real experience with guided
4 experiences, often immersive in nature, that evoke or replicate substantial aspects of
5 the real world in a fully interactive fashion” [1]. Advancements in medical technology
6 and restrictive work hours, have seen a shift in Halsted’s traditional “see one, do one,
7 teach one” training paradigm and simulation training is becoming widely adopted
8 within the medical field [2].
9

10 Simulation has long been a core component of training in other high-risk professions,
11 including training of pilots and military personnel. In healthcare education, simulation
12 is used to recreate the clinical and intraoperative experience. Due to an increasing
13 number of medical graduates and pressure for reduced work hours, trainees have less
14 exposure to patients than previous generations [3]. Didactic lectures, case-based
15 learning, and direct supervision are insufficient replacements for clinical experience,
16 particularly in surgical specialties [3]. Although trainees’ quality of life has improved,
17 opportunities to develop proficiency in skills has become limited, and there is an
18 increasing need to train outside of direct clinical exposure [3]. Simulation training
19 allows for deliberate practice and immediate feedback, facilitating skill acquisition in
20 a safe environment before moving into the operative field; this is particularly true in
21 procedures that require advanced technical skills such as laparoscopic surgery [4].
22

23 Laparoscopic surgery has brought benefits to both the patient and surgeon including
24 shorter operation time and improved patient outcomes such as quicker recovery,
25 smaller wounds, reduced rates of infection, and less pain [5]. The learning curve of
26 laparoscopic surgery differs from open surgery, due to the higher requirement for
27 manual dexterity, hand-eye coordination, and adaption to the fulcrum effect [6].
28 Consequently, the technical skills acquired from open surgical experience has limited
29 transference to minimally invasive techniques [6].
30

31 Simulation training can supplement the early portion of the learning curve and a
32 structured curriculum can further shorten the learning curve inside the operating room
33 [4, 7]. Randomised control trials show that residents who received a simulation-based
34 laparoscopy curriculum before entering the operating theatre had fewer errors and
35 improved performance when compared to those who received conventional training
36 [4]. A 2013 systematic review showed that simulation training for laparoscopic skills
37 was significantly more effective than standard training, regardless of study design,
38 previous experience of participants, outcomes tested, or specific skills measured [8].
39

40 Laparoscopy is preferred over open surgery when possible, but with the difficult
41 learning curve, it is both unsafe and time-consuming to begin by practicing on real
42 patients. Simulation training is an advantageous method for training in laparoscopy,
43 with a strong body of supporting evidence. Despite this, there is no standardised
44 laparoscopic simulation curriculum in Australia, likely a result of multiple factors
45 including costs, lack of infrastructure, and limited understanding of how best to
46 integrate the technology into practice. The development of such a curriculum should
47 be evidence-based, to optimise the different components of training and maximise its
48 benefits. This review explores current evidence surrounding the development and
49 implementation of simulation-based education curriculums in laparoscopic surgery.
50 The authors hope that by raising awareness of the benefits of such a curriculum,

1 training centres may be encouraged to implement such programs, and trainees may be
2 more inclined to pursue these.

4 **Simulation modalities**

6 Multiple modalities exist for simulated training. Traditionally, animal models and
7 human cadavers were used to simulate disease and practice laparoscopic techniques
8 [9]. However, animal models differ from human anatomy, and whilst cadaveric
9 models are the closest replication of reality, they are both costly and are limited in
10 availability. Box trainers and virtual reality simulators present a new method of
11 training technique [10, 11].

13 *Box trainers*

14 Box trainers present a simple, low-cost method for training basic laparoscopic skills,
15 including suturing and knot tying [10]. Synthetic materials or animal tissues are
16 placed inside the box; performance is captured by a laparoscope and viewed in real-
17 time on an external monitor (Figure 1A). In a Cochrane systematic review of surgical
18 trainees with no prior laparoscopic experience, box trainers improved time to task
19 completion and reduced errors when compared to no training [10]. However, the
20 majority of studies on the efficacy of this modality are limited to small, short-term,
21 single-centre trials that are prone to bias, and many of which are difficult to compare
22 in method and outcomes measured [10].

24 *Virtual reality*

25 Virtual reality (VR) training uses computer-generated simulations and specially
26 designed laparoscopic arms to simulate laparoscopic surgery (Figure 1B). There are
27 multiple systems available to facilitate the training of basic skills to entire operations
28 [11]. VR training has been validated by the landmark randomised controlled trial by
29 Seymour *et al.*, which demonstrated that VR simulation improved operating room
30 performance in laparoscopic cholecystectomies [12]. Since then, there has been a
31 growing body of research exploring the integration of VR training into the surgical
32 curriculum.

34 *Comparing box trainer and VR training*

35 There is no consensus on the best simulation training in laparoscopic surgery; both
36 box and VR simulators have their advantages (Table 1). Some evidence favours box
37 trainers as an equally if not more effective and more feasible training option than VR
38 training [8]. A recent meta-analysis of 14 randomised controlled trials showed that
39 VR was significantly more efficient than box trainers in improving the time to
40 complete the peg transfer task [13]. In all other areas, including performance scores
41 for basic skills and advanced tasks, box trainers and VR were equivalent [13]. This
42 marginal improvement questions whether the cost of VR is justified by its additional
43 benefit. Again, there is a significant gap in the evidence exploring the impact on
44 clinical outcomes between these two modalities.

46 Interestingly, some studies show that skills learned on box trainers are transferrable to
47 VR simulators, but not all skills learned on VR training can be transferred to box
48 trainers [14]. This suggests that VR allows for the acquisition of skills that cannot be
49 learned on the bench-top models alone. However, this also represents a concept that
50 can be transferred to multimodal models for training; which trainees can begin with

1 box trainers and transition to VR simulators with more complex tasks. Unfortunately,
2 one of the biggest gaps in the literature is the cost-effectiveness and long-term clinical
3 benefit of both interventions. Additionally, the majority of trials investigating the
4 efficacy of simulation training in laparoscopy are single centre studies involving small
5 sample sizes, and often use different methodologies and outcome measures [10, 13,
6 15]. There remains a need for larger, multi-centre trials, and consistent standardised
7 methodology to allow for better comparison. Importantly, there seems to be one
8 consensus in the literature and that is either modality is better than no simulation
9 training at all [8, 10, 15].

10 **Considerations for practice**

11
12
13 Certain elements need to be considered when developing a curriculum. This article
14 explores the transfer of skill into the operating theatre, cost, and factors that influence
15 long-term retention.

16 *Transfer of skill*

17
18 In laparoscopic surgery, the transfer of skills from simulation to the intraoperative
19 environment is incomplete. Residents trained to the same level of proficiency as
20 experienced surgeons in the simulation laboratory, do not translate to equal
21 proficiency in the operating room [16]. Addressing this performance gap is important
22 when considering the transition between the simulator and operative environment,
23 thus identification of factors contributing to these factors and developing an
24 intermediary platform is warranted. The gradual incrementation of real-life
25 intraoperative tasks alongside simulation training, beginning with basic skills and
26 progression to complete procedures, may aid this transition.

27
28 A major barrier for transfer is that intraoperative performance is not determined by
29 technical proficiency alone, but is also combined with surgical judgment, quick
30 decision-making skills, aptitude, temperament, and background of experience gained
31 so far by the trainee. The global operative assessment of laparoscopic skill (GOALS)
32 was developed and the objective structured assessment of technical skill (OSATS)
33 scoring systems was adapted for objective assessment in laparoscopic surgery [17,
34 18]. However, these systems purely test technical skills, and do not assess non-
35 technical skills such as surgical judgment. In real operations, anatomical variations
36 and unplanned complications require quick decision-making skills from the attending
37 surgeon [19]. This ability to adapt and use intuitive judgment is underdeveloped in
38 novice surgeons [19]. In laparoscopic simulation training, we still lack an objective
39 method of teaching and assessing intraoperative judgment.

40
41 Another reason for incomplete transfer of skills pertains to differences in the training
42 environment and the distracting conditions of realistic clinical practice. Studies that
43 incorporate the addition of realistic distractions, such as noise, into the design model
44 showed improved surgical proficiency in the operating room [20]. Another hypothesis
45 is that increased stress impacts laparoscopic skills transfer. Arora *et al.* established the
46 empirical link between stress and psychomotor performance on a VR simulator. They
47 found that higher levels of stress, measured by heart rate, salivary cortisol, and an
48 anxiety inventory, correlated with the number of errors [21]. The transition from the
49 laboratory to the real intraoperative environment is difficult, stressful, and leads to an

1 incomplete transfer of skill [21]. Indeed, it seems simulation alone is not sufficient to
2 adequately train laparoscopic surgeons to expert proficiency.

3 4 *Cost*

5 Cost is a barrier in the uptake of simulation training in laparoscopic surgical programs
6 and laparoscopic surgery, particularly in less developed nations. This is largely due to
7 the lack of a long-term funding structure to support the maintenance of laparoscopic
8 facilities and equipment, trained supervisors and staff, and costs of resource utilisation
9 [22]. The development of low-cost programs is therefore an incredibly important
10 aspect to improve access to sustainable minimally invasive surgery.

11
12 A step-wise approach is the most time and cost-efficient way of training laparoscopic
13 surgeons [7]. Learning basic laparoscopic skills shortens the learning curve for more
14 complex tasks with subsequent cost savings on materials and supervising personnel
15 salary [7]. Additionally, learning tasks through a series of step-wise advances reduces
16 the amount of time needed to learn the full task [23]. This suggests that a training
17 curriculum involving a multistage progressive approach is substantially more time-
18 efficient and likely more cost-effective.

19
20 Some evidence supports the effectiveness of video tutorials in teaching laparoscopic
21 techniques and optimising learning on simulator trainers [24]. Video tutorials
22 minimise the need for supervision and thus reduce the costs associated with
23 supervision salary [24]. However, video learning alone is not as effective as
24 simulators in skill acquisition processes [8]. Combining video tutorials and simulator
25 training may optimise cost reduction without sacrificing the quality of skill
26 development.

27 28 *Long-term retention*

29 The decay of acquired surgical skills and subsequent need for retraining represents a
30 significant but potentially avoidable cost burden. Whilst short-term training can be
31 effective in acquiring proficiency in basic laparoscopic skills, these skills are likely to
32 decay over time [25, 26].

33
34 One of the proposed methods for improving long-term retention is spaced training
35 sessions, deemed the “spacing effect” [25]. A recent systematic review showed that
36 the spacing effect in surgical skills programs improved long-term retention when
37 compared to mass learning [25]. However optimal duration and frequency of practice
38 between each training session are unclear, and there is minimal evidence on the
39 impact of spaced training on current programs and the cost-effectiveness of spaced
40 programs.

41
42 Simulation modality and skill type may also affect retention. Box trainers have been
43 shown to lead to more consistent retention of basic laparoscopic skills six months
44 post-training when compared to VR simulators [27]. Additionally, different skills
45 seem to deteriorate quicker than others and may require more frequent sessions [26].
46 This suggests curriculum adaptations need to be made between different skills, as well
47 as different modalities of training, to maximise long-term retention.

48
49 Ongoing training is also shown to aid the maintenance of skill proficiency. Adding
50 maintenance training sessions has been shown to not only reduce skill loss but also

1 improve performance [28]. Although there is no consensus yet on how best to
2 structure these post-training intervals in the literature; there is support for monthly
3 [28], three-monthly [29], and biannual [30] training sessions. A higher number of
4 repeat practices have also been shown to improve the speed of task completion,
5 without sacrifice in precision, accuracy, and performance [14]. If improvement in task
6 time translates to clinical practice, this could potentially reduce operative time,
7 shorten hospital stay, and further reduce the risk of infection from prolonged
8 exposure. Others argue it is not the number of practices but rather “deliberate
9 practice” which leads to the most improvement. Deliberate practice is a theoretical
10 framework proposed by Ericsson and colleagues describing the actions for optimal
11 learning to reach expert performance, including motivated learners, focused tasks,
12 feedback, and area for repetition to refine performance [31]. A combination of
13 simulation-based training and deliberate practice is suggested to be most beneficial,
14 particularly in virtual reality-based curriculums [32].

15
16 The difficulty in studying long-term retention of skills is in part due to the high
17 number of non-completers, withdrawals, and loss to follow up. This combined with
18 the niche study population and small sample sizes make it difficult to establish high-
19 powered results. There is a need for high-powered, long-term trials to truly
20 characterise effective methods of improving long-term retention in laparoscopic
21 surgical trainees.

22 23 *Timing of training delivery*

24 Multiple factors influence the suggested timing of laparoscopic simulation in the
25 surgical curriculum. This includes, but is not limited, many of the components
26 previously mentioned in this article; including trainee experience levels, the
27 availability and flexibility of facilities, the availability of training staff, and the
28 opportunity to practice in the intraoperative environment. In trials assessing
29 simulation training for basic laparoscopic skills, the target population has
30 predominantly consisted of surgical trainees in their early postgraduate years, with
31 some studies investigating medical students [13]. Studies involving more difficult and
32 specialised techniques, including multistep procedures, have targeted advanced
33 trainees [13]. Simulation training can, therefore, support the acquisition of skill at all
34 training levels. However, it is not sufficient alone; laparoscopic simulation training
35 should be strategically implemented alongside real-life intraoperative experience to
36 utilise the technology to its fullest potential.

37 38 **Current curriculums**

39
40 In Australia, there is no standardised national curriculum for training basic
41 laparoscopic skills. Instead, laparoscopic surgery forms a component of the specialty-
42 specific logbooks as part of the competency-based assessment [33]. Whilst there are
43 some specialty accredited short courses and workshops that utilise simulation training
44 to teach basic laparoscopic techniques, the evidence for these courses are often
45 limited to small, single-centre studies [34]. Consequently, a simulation-based
46 curriculum for laparoscopic surgery, with a strong evidence base and robust
47 evaluation, is lacking in Australia and needs development.

48
49 Currently, the only standardised laparoscopic training curriculum is the Fundamentals
50 in Laparoscopic Surgery (FLS) certification in the United States, developed by the

1 Society of American Gastrointestinal and Endoscopic Surgeons (SAGES). Introduced
2 over a decade ago, FLS is a board certification and pre-requisite for general surgery
3 residency training in the United States [35]. FLS comprises online education modules,
4 hands-on box model training, and examination testing both cognitive and motor skills.
5 Despite the widespread acceptance of the FLS certification in the United States, the
6 program still has its limitations. First, there is little evidence on the impact on patient
7 outcomes, likely because FLS was only adopted recently as the gold standard for
8 general residency board certification [36]. Secondly, the significant costs associated
9 with implementing the program may not be feasible in low-income countries.
10 Solutions presented for this issue are to cut costs by replacing dedicated human and
11 material resources in specific tasks and using lower-cost equipment [37]. However,
12 the lower cost adapted simulators are not as validated in the literature as the
13 commercially available simulators. This highlights how simulation in laparoscopic
14 surgery is also driven by industry; the widespread dissemination and testing of
15 simulation technology, such as the FLS, is central to its implementation into the
16 surgical training curriculum. Thirdly, there is currently no recommended time for
17 residents to undertake the examination for the FLS certification. Although increased
18 success rates for successful certification are associated with a more senior level of
19 training, there is no current recommended time for application [36]. Lastly, although
20 the FLS program was initially intended to apply to multiple surgical specialties, the
21 literature suggests the FLS is not universally applicable. For example, in gynaecology,
22 FLS falls short in the cognitive skills and testing [38]. Researchers have begun to
23 develop a tailored curriculum for this specialty [39]. However, FLS is the only
24 program to date to be extensively investigated in the literature. Consequently, FLS
25 has the highest validity compared with other programs, which are by contrast still in
26 their infancy.

27 28 **Conclusion**

29
30 Simulation is recognised as an important component of surgical training in the current
31 landscape. This is particularly relevant in the acquisition of the necessary
32 psychomotor skills in minimally invasive surgery. Within the last two decades, there
33 has been an overwhelming amount of research supporting the efficacy of simulation
34 in laparoscopic training. We are now transitioning from the phase of ‘if we should’ to
35 ‘how we should’ integrate this into practice. This paper has discussed several factors
36 that should be considered during the development of a training curriculum, including
37 method of simulation, transfer to the operating theatre, cost implications, and
38 improving long term retention. There is a need for further analysis into cost-
39 effectiveness, long-term and larger trials, and a more rigorous standardised method
40 for trials to be adequately compared. Regardless, it is clear that the era of “see one, do
41 one, teach one” is over; now is the time for “see some, simulate some, do some, teach
42 some”.

43

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4

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7

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10

11 **Authors Contribution**

12 P.N. and A.A. devised the original concept, provided critical revisions, and supervised
13 this project. D.L. wrote and revised the manuscript.

14

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