A review on considerations needed educating new physicians

Alavi A*, Amjadi N**

- *Fertility and Infertility Research Center, Hormozgan University of Medical Sciences, Bandar Abbas, Iran,
- **Preventative Gynecology Research Center (PGRC), Shahid Beheshti University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran

Correspondence to: N Amjadi, MD,

Preventative Gynecology Research Center (PGRC), Shahid Beheshti University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran,

Valiasr Street, District 3, Code 1985717443, Tehran, Iran, Phone: +98-9032302458, E-mail: Amjadi.n@tums.ac.ir

Received: March 14th, 2015 - Accepted: June 18th, 2015

Abstract

The long process of medical education is important crucial parts related to public health. This research was led to study the educational alternatives in teaching new physicians.

The necessity for a revolution in the medical education is due to the increased number of medical students, constant number of constant number of cases, and their prospects enhanced professors workload and enhanced supervisory agency mistake less clinical events happening for medical students, interns and residents. Newer techniques have become available in improving education. Stimulation has been utilized before as an educational technique in military training, space programs, aviation industry, sports stimulation, nuclear power industry, teaching anatomy, anesthesiology, and resuscitation training. Physical models (in a skills lab or workshop), computer programs including (over the internet), standard patients, etc., can be utilized for this technique. By reviewing the literature, we can conclude that several subjects are needed to be explained earlier education. Thus, to conduct an accurate program, these questions must be answered, appropriately.

Keywords: medical education, public health, educational alternatives, physicians

Introduction

Medical education is a lengthy system that takes four to 12 years of education. Its a collection of lectures, tutorials, clinical experiences and night shifts and contains socialization experience, acquiring knowledge, attitudes, skills, values and sense of ethics [1-3].

The scope, type, and timing of medical schools vary worldwide. Recently, health services of many countries have felt the need to change their educational system to better prepare future doctors for their role and provide the highest quality of care to patients and modify current methods which are known to be dehumanizing, saddening, offensive and severe [1,4-9].

Due to the increased number of medical students, the constant number of cases and their prospects, and enhanced supervisory agency mistake, less clinical events are occurring for medical students, interns and residents [1,10]. Also, the increased professor's workload reduces the opportunity to improve education. Thus, the current model of "learning by doing" has to change, especially because it involves real patients [1,11].

Education focused on specific skills or procedures can increase self-confidence and competence of the students [11]. Also, studies have explained that

specific skills such as an a suitable connection among patients and their physician increases health outcomes (such as patient understanding and recall, symptom resolution, treatment adherence, and patient satisfaction) and decreases malpractice and medical errors [4,12-14] 1B. Also, fewer malpractice claims occur after a good communication [15-17]. These skills are important parts of practice and are carefully evaluated before granting practice license in many countries. Relying on few experiences that may or may not occur during rotations does not seem to be efficient and may lead to the unpreparedness of the future physicians [18].

There are many tasks required to master a procedure; developing cognitive abilities to understand evidence and contraindications, expanding technical expertise, learning to interpret the results, developing communicational skills and bedside manners, and how to obtain an informed consent [19]. Studies have shown that students have high anxiety and low levels of confidence performing various skills [11,20,21].

These core skills can be taught to students. However, there are many challenges that are needed to be defeated. The most important problem is the process of teaching a large number of students in a limited period. Due to the crowded curriculum of medical schools, several medical skills have not received their requiring

dedicated timing and the relying on current resources has not efficiently solved this problem. Time shortages on both ends (students and educators) are a challenging part of the medical skill education [11,20]. Even among these skills, the personality development (including communicational skills, development of ethics sense, etc.) has been undermined. Performing these skills and mastering them during clinical experiences and patients' exposures are the most often implemented teaching methods. However, due to variable and sometimes, lack of supervision [19,22].

A study conducted by Wickstorm et al. showed that residents had performed only 15.4 percent of the required procedures frequently enough to be confident during the procedures [23]. Wigton et al. also showed that less than half of the residency program directors believed that their residences had mastered basic procedural skills [24]. Other studies have shown that new residents should learn the procedural skills exactly as medical students. However, many institutions use their residents to teach these skills to medical students [19].

The time of the student teaching has never been this brief. However, studies have shown that a short course, even a one day course, can significantly improve the learners skills leading to a better health outcome and a significant increase in the physicians' job satisfaction [11,19-21,25].

Previous studies have reported a reduced clinical experience for medical students and fewer case encounters [1], which led to a lower proficiency on implementing the required skills [26-28]. Another reason for fewer procedural experiences is that nurses, IV teams, phlebotomists and other hospital staff, routinely conduct basic skills [6,19]. Other than fewer clinical experiments for students, this leads to fewer opportunities for faculty members and many of them perform each procedure fewer than ten times per year. Thus, they feel uncomfortable to teach them to the collegians [29]. In turn, it results in fewer educational positions for the medical students since residents might lack the confidence or rather keep the experience for themselves. The unpreparedness of students creates two other obstacles; it is unethical to get the procedures on real and actual patients, and that patients are not willing to let trainees perform procedures on them. Another obstacle can be that students might not be comfortable to perform these tasks on patients [28,30,31].

Studies have shown that logging the amount of procedures can improve proficiency and provide further opportunities for students to perform procedures [32]. Students should be assessed to have a level of competence before performing procedures on patients. This assessment can be conducted by evaluating their ability to interpret the results of similar practice, ask the indications and contraindications to assess their knowledge, and finally, conduct the experiment on animal models or stimulated patients [25,33].

Stimulation as an educational technique

Stimulation has been used to teach various skills before. The first place that used stimulation for education was the military. Also, space programs, aviation industry, sports stimulation (such as chess, etc.), and nuclear power industry are other samples of stimulation implementation. In medical education, teaching anatomy, anesthesiology and resuscitation training have used stimulation for some time and theirs experience has shown to be prosperous [34-36].

Simulation can be conducted by using physical models (in a skills lab or workshop), computer programs inclusion (over the internet), standard patients, etc. This method offers many benefits. It provides a planned exposure to clinical situations and realistic learning environments. Students can repeat their experiences many times in a safe and controllable environment [11,18]. The utility of this technique has previously been proven in military training and for curing psychological disorders [36-39]. Learners can practice infrequent clinical conditions in a protected environment [40,41].

However, the limitation of information regarding this method might prevent many organizations from implementing this technique.

Stevens et al. conducted a study to investigate the usage of virtual patients in teaching clinical and communicational skills to medical students. They reported many problems in understanding the students' queries which can lead to the student becoming exhausted and can result in education failure [18]. They concluded that using virtual patients can decrease the expenses compared to standardized patients and an endless repository of clinical scenarios can be made. They added that this method could comply with different educational needs and provide a safe educational environment for students. Participants of that study recognized the implementation of virtual instructor as a powerful educational tool [18].

Meyers et al. conducted a study to investigate the effects of teaching technical skills to medical students during their surgery clerkship. They assigned third year students to a three-week program and taught knot tying, foley catheter and nasogastrial tube placement, suturing, I.V. placement and arterial puncture. They also used a self-reported checklist to report their skill before and after the intervention. They showed that all skills were better performed after the intervention, however, the increase in NG tube insertion and removal were not significant. They concluded that introducing specific technical skills during clerkship could improve the skills of the students [11].

Stewart et al. conducted a study to determine the outcomes of pre clinical skills course on the proficiency, anxiety, and confidence of medical students while performing these tasks. The skills included reading electrocardiograph, abdominal and chest x-rays, obtaining bedside chart data and interpretation of them, knot tying,

nasogastrial tube insertion and removing, suturing, sterile technique, obtaining an informed consent, intravenous catheterization and foley catheter placement and removal. A self-reporting checklist was distributed between the members, back and next arbitration. They showed that proficiency and self confidence of students significantly increased in all taught areas after the four hour course [20].

Use of workshops to teach procedural skills

Many medical schools have developed workshops that provide experiments [21]. These workshops are occasionally carried out for pre clinical students who are at their third or fourth year of medical school [42,43]. These centers can provide opportunities in an organized way and the educators are not significantly doctors [44]. However, non-physician trainers are carefully assessed and their competency is certified. Before conducting the procedure on patients, students must pass a relative quiz and perform the experiments on plastic models. After passing these steps, the student must execute the procedure on actual patients while being supervised and after successful attempts, students get authorized to perform those tasks [19].

Use of standardized patients

Some universities and medical education organizations use standardized patients to teach their students and increase their clinical experience. This method has its own advantages compared to real patients. However, the use of this method is limited due to its high expense [18].

Use of computer and internet to teach the required skills

Due to the rapid advancement of computer technology, computer and internet technology are considered for entering the main stream of health care education. After the introduction and development of internet, it has been considered as a powerful source of information for many fields, including physicians [11,45]. Providing an interactive and multimedia experience that stimulates a real patient, lets the learner act as the physician and submit his experience, can be useful to students, residents and even graduated and licensed doctors [46]. However, the use of internet to teach skills is limited and is mostly used for CME learning and the efficacy of teaching medical students and inexperienced learners should be examined [47,48].

A difficulty in utilizing this technology is that they eliminate the non-verbal skills and the student might fail to recognize it as a crucial part of the communication [49].

We reviewed few additional techniques that can help students and residents achieve competence in required skills. However, it must be kept in mind that none of them is enough and they can only replace very early stages of clinical education. Further studies are needed to evaluate the effects of teaching aids on patient care and health care costs [44].

Discussion

Based on the reviewed literature, a number of questions should be answered prior to clinical education:

- 1. Which skills and procedures should be mastered by medical students or residents?
- 2. When should they start to learn the procedures and skills?
- 3. Who should teach the procedures and required skills to medical students?
- 4. Which method should be used to teach these skills?
- 5. How many efficiency are required for competency?
- 6. What items should be evaluated to see whether they have mastered the skills or not?
- 7. How should this assessment be done?

The type of skills that are necessary to learn should be reassessed in different environments [50].

Even though anybody who can teach these skills should be welcomed (such as fellow medical students, interns, residents, professors, etc.), it is best to train the students using hospital personnel who are actually involved with those specific procedures in a daily base; nasogastric tube and urethral catheter insertion and removal can be taught by nurses, placing intravenous catheters can be educated by IV teams, arterial punctures can be taught by respiratory therapists, laboratory staff can teach preparing specimens, and residents and attending can teach more specialized procedures [4,11,19,51,52]. However, as mentioned earlier, hospital staff involved in the medical training must be carefully assessed and certified.

McLeod et al. have suggested standards for teaching educational skills [10,51]: 1. Assessing the needs and preparing the student, 2. Clearly performing the techniques and providing educational commentaries, 3. Asking the student to perform the procedure and carefully observing the learner and encouraging repetition, 4. Providing appropriate feedback, 5. Pointing out the strengths and weaknesses while encouraging the students, 6. Developing various situations and scenarios for the students to repeat the practice, 7. Understanding that every learner's skills and personalities are different and are prepared to modify the approach.

Using a suitable evaluation system is important to assess student skills. Some studies have suggested self-assessment as a tool for the assessment of the proficiency of students and it is recognized as an essential part of skill building. Especially since students can review and analyze their own skills [4], However, various studies have shown that it is inefficient and students are inclined to exaggerate their capabilities [52-56]. Overall, since it allows faculty members to see what

the students observe and value and thus, provide invaluable feedback, self assessment is an important tool and must not be forgotten [4].

Some studies suggest videotaped encounters with simulated or standard patients along with self-reporting tools to increase the precision and accuracy of the assessment [57-62].

The early introduction of additional methods to medical students can increase the chances of mastering the required skills. However, it is needed to carefully evaluate the concepts learned by these learning aids and assess whether they are applied on actual clinical experiences or not [20,52,63]. The final thing to remember

is that despite the expansion of all these methods and techniques, none of them are able to replace the actual clinical experience and all these methods are only preparing students to achieve the maximum possible experience possible [44].

Conflicts of interest

The authors of this article notify that they have no conflicts of interest.

Source of funding

References

- McManus I, Richards P, Winder B, Sproston K, Vincent C. The changing clinical experience of British medical students. The Lancet. 1993; 341(8850):941-4.
- Makoul G. Contemporary issues in medicine: communication in medicine. Association of American Medical Colleges Medical school objectives project, Report 13. III: Contemporary issues in medicine: Communication in medicine Washington, DC: AAMC. 1999.
- Knight JA. Doctor-to-be: Coping with the 14. trials and triumphs of medical school: Appleton-Century-Crofts. 1981.
- Zick A, Granieri M, Makoul G. First-year 15. medical students' assessment of their own communication skills: a video-based, open-ended approach. Patient Education 16. and Counseling. 2007; 68(2):161-6.
- Makoul G. Communication skills education in medical school and beyond. Jama. 2003; 289(1):93-.
- Bradley P, Postlethwaite K. Simulation 17. in clinical learning. Medical Education. 2003: 37:1-5.
- Feher M, Harris-St John K, Lant A. Blood pressure measurement by junior hospital doctors-a gap in medical education?. Health Trends. 1992; 24(2):59-61.
- Maroof Hassan TH, Ahmed SM, Fraz TR, Rehmat Z. Perceived stress and stressors among house officers. Indian 19. Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine. 2014; 18(3):145.
- Wolf T, Balson P, Faucett J, Randall H. 20.
 A retrospective study of attitude change during medical education. Medical Education. 1989; 23(1):19-23.
- Peyre SE, Peyre CG, Sullivan ME, Towfigh S. A surgical skills elective can improve student confidence prior to internship. Journal of Surgical Research. 21. 2006; 133(1):11-5.
- 11. Kneebone R. Simulation in surgical training: educational issues and practical

- implications. Medical Education. 2003; 37(3):267-77.
- 2. Horowitz SD. Evaluation of clinical 22. competencies: basic certification, subspecialty certification, and recertification. American Journal of Physical Medicine & Rehabilitation. 2000; 79(5):478-80.
- Stewart MA. Effective physician-patient communication and health outcomes: a review. CMAJ: Canadian Medical Association Journal. 1995; 152(9):1423.
- Epstein RM, Hundert EM. Defining and assessing professional competence. 24. Jama. 2002; 287(2):226-35.
- Levinson W. Physician-patient communication: a key to malpractice prevention. Jama. 1994; 272(20):1619-20.
- Whang JS, Baker SR, Patel R, Luk L, 25.
 Castro III A. The causes of medical malpractice suits against radiologists in the United States. Radiology. 2013; 266(2):548-54.
- Riess H, Kraft-Todd G. EMPATHY: a tool to enhance nonverbal communication between clinicians and their patients. Academic Medicine. 2014; 89(8):1108-12.
- Stevens A, Hernandez J, Johnsen K, Dickerson R, Raij A, Harrison C et al. The use of virtual patients to teach medical students history taking and 27. communication skills. The American Journal of Surgery, 2006; 191(6):806-11.
- Elnicki DM, Fagan MJ. Medical students and procedural skills. The American Journal of Medicine. 2003; 114(4):343-5.
 - Stewart RA, Hauge LS, Stewart RD, Rosen RL, Charnot-Katsikas A, Prinz RA. A CRASH course in procedural skills 28. improves medical students' self-assessment of proficiency, confidence, and anxiety. The American Journal of Surgery. 2007; 193(6):771-3.
- . Fincher R, Lewis LA. Learning, 29. experience, and self-assessment of competence of third-year medical students in performing bedside

- procedures. Academic Medicine. 1994; 69(4):291-5.
- . Muller S. Physicians for the twenty-first century: report of the project panel on the general professional education of the physician and college preparation for medicine. J Med Educ. 1984; 59:1-208.
- Wickstrom GC, Kolar MM, Keyserling TC, Kelley DK, Xie SX, Bognar BA et al. Confidence of graduating internal medicine residents to perform ambulatory procedures. Journal of General Internal Medicine. 2000; 15(6):361-5.
- Wigton RS, Blank LL, Nicolas JA, Tape TG. Procedural skills training in internal medicine residencies: a survey of program directors. Annals of Internal Medicine. 1989; 111(11):932-8.
- Norris TE, Cullison SW, Fihn SD. Teaching procedural skills. Journal of General Internal Medicine. 1997; 12(s2):64-70.
- Wu EH, Elnicki DM, Alper EJ, Bost JE, Corbett EC Jr., Fagan MJ et al. Procedural and interpretive skills of medical students: experiences and attitudes of fourth-year students. Academic medicine: Journal of the Association of American Medical Colleges. 2008; 83(10 Suppl):S63-7.
- Wu EH, Elnicki DM, Alper EJ, Bost JE, Corbett EC Jr., Fagan MJ et al. Procedural and interpretive skills of medical students: experiences and attitudes of third-year students. Academic medicine: Journal of the Association of American Medical Colleges. 2006; 81(10 Suppl):S48-51.
- 3. Elnicki DM, Shumway JM, Halbritter KA, Morris DK. Interpretive and procedural skills of the internal medicine clerkship: performance and supervision. South Med J. 1996; 89(6):603-8.
- Wickstrom GC, Kelley DK, Keyserling TC, Kolar MM, Dixon JG, Xie SX et al. Confidence of academic general internists and family physicians to teach ambulatory

- procedures. Journal of General Internal Medicine. 2000; 15(6):353-60.
- Hicks CM, Gonzales R, Morton MT, Gibbons RV, Wigton RS, Anderson RJ. 42. Procedural experience and comfort level in internal medicine trainees. Journal of General Internal Medicine. 2000; 15(10):716-22.
- Chapman DM, Cavanaugh SH. Using receiver operating characteristic (ROC) analysis to establish the previous experience threshold for critical-procedure 44. competency. Academic Medicine. 1996; 71(10):S7-9.
- 32. Hunskaar S, Seim S. The effect of a 45. checklist on medical students' exposures to practical skills. Medical education. 1984; 18(6):439-42.
- Friedlich M, MacRae H, Oandasan I, 46. Tannenbaum D, Batty H, Reznick R et al. Structured assessment of minor surgical skills [SAMSS] for family medicine residents. Academic Medicine. 2001; 76(12):1241-6.
- 34. Burch V. Does simulation-based training have a future in Africa?. African Journal of Health Professions Education. 2014; 6(2):117-8.
- Akaike M, Fukutomi M, Nagamune M, Fujimoto A, Tsuji A, Ishida K et al. 48. Simulation-based medical education in clinical skills laboratory. The Journal of Medical Investigation. 2012; 59(1,2):28- 49. 35.
- Bradley P. The history of simulation in medical education and possible future directions. Medical Education. 2006; 40(3):254-62.
- Hill Jr RW, Gratch J, Marsella S, Rickel 50.
 J, Swartout WR, Traum DR. Virtual Humans in the Mission Rehearsal Exercise System. Kl. 2003; 17(4):5-.
- Bearman M, Cesnik B, Liddell M.
 Random comparison of 'virtual 51.
 patient'models in the context of teaching clinical communication skills. Medical Education. 2001; 35(9):824-32.
- Pertaub DP, Slater M, Barker C. An experiment on public speaking anxiety in response to three different types of virtual sudience. Presence: Teleoperators and virtual environments. 2002; 11(1):68-78.
- Nuzhat A, Salem RO, Al Shehri FN, Al Hamdan N. Role and challenges of simulation in undergraduate curriculum. 53. Medical teacher. 2014; 36(sup1):S69-S73
- **41. Colliver JA.** Educational Theory and Medical Education Practice: A Cautionary

- Note for Medical School Faculty. Academic Medicine. 2002; 77(12, Part 1):1217-20.
- Powers LR, Draeger SK. Using workshops to teach residents primary care procedures. Academic Medicine. 1992; 67(11):743-5.
- Taylor L, Vergidis D, Lovasik A, Crockford P. A skills programme for 55. preclinical medical students. Medical education. 1992; 26(6):448-53.
- Bradley P, Bligh J. Clinical skills centres: where are we going?. Medical Education. 2005; 39(7):649-50.
- Curran VR, Fleet L. A review of evaluation outcomes of web-based 56. continuing medical education. Medical Education. 2005; 39(6):561-7.
- 46. Sklar B. The current status of online CME. Masters thesis, 2001, University of California, San Francisco. http://www. cmelist. com/mastersthesis/[last checked 57. 25 June 2005].
 - Richardson ML, Norris TE. On-line delivery of continuing medical education over the World-Wide Web: an on-line needs assessment. AJR American Journal of Roentgenology. 1997; 58. 168(5):1161-4.
- Sikorski R, Peters R. Tools for change: CME on the Internet. Jama. 1998; 280(11):1013-4.
- Haq C, Steele DJ, Marchand L, Seibert 59.
 C, Brody D. Integrating the art and science of medical practice: innovations in teaching medical communication skills.
 Family Medicine-Kansas City. 2004; 60. 36(1:SUPP):S43-S50.
 - Fagan M, Cece R. Using respiratory therapists to teach arterial puncture for blood gas procedures to third-year medical students. Academic Medicine. 1999; 74(5):594-5.
- McLeod PJ, Steinert Y, Trudel J, Gottesman R. Seven principles for 61. teaching procedural and technical skills. Academic medicine: Journal of the Association of American Medical 62. Colleges. 2001; 76(10):1080-.
- Barrett SV, Zapka JG, Mazor KM, Luckmann RS. Assessing Third-year Medical Students' Breast Cancer Screening Skills. Academic Medicine. 63. 2002; 77(9):905-10.
- Kim YM, Figueroa ME, Martin A, Silva R, Acosta SF, Hurtado M et al. Impact of supervision and self-assessment on doctor-patient communication in rural

- Mexico. International Journal for Quality in Health Care. 2002; 14(5):359-67.
- Barnsley L, Lyon PM, Ralston SJ, Hibbert EJ, Cunningham I, Gordon FC et al. Clinical skills in junior medical officers: a comparison of self-reported confidence and observed competence. Med Educ. 2004; 38(4):358-67.
- Leopold SS, Morgan HD, Kadel NJ, Gardner GC, Schaad DC, Wolf FM. Impact of educational intervention on confidence and competence in the performance of a simple surgical task. The Journal of Bone and Joint Surgery American Volume. 2005; 87(5):1031-7.
- Kruger J, Dunning D. Unskilled and unaware of it: how difficulties in recognizing one's own incompetence lead to inflated self-assessments. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology. 1999; 77(6):1121-34.
- Martin D, Regehr G, Hodges B, McNaughton N. Using videotaped benchmarks to improve the selfassessment ability of family practice residents. Academic Medicine. 1998; 73(11):1201-6.
- Maguire P, Roe P, Goldberg D, Jones S, Hyde C, O'Dowd T. The value of feedback in teaching interviewing skills to medical students. Psychological Medicine. 1978; 8(04):695-704.
- Hays RB. Self-evaluation of videotaped consultations. Teaching and Learning in Medicine: An International Journal. 1990; 2(4):232-6.
- 60. O'Meara P, Munro G, Williams B, Cooper S, Bogossian F, Ross L et al. Developing situation awareness amongst nursing and paramedicine students utilizing eye tracking technology and video debriefing techniques: A proof of concept paper. International Emergency Nursing. 2015; 23(2):94-9.
- Mičetić Turk D. Communication teaching in medical education. Slovenian Medical Journal. 2013; 82(3).
- Spandorfer J, Puklus T, Rose V, Vahedi M, Collins L, Giordano C et al. Peer assessment among first year medical students in anatomy. Anatomical Sciences Education. 2014; 7(2):144-52.
- Sammann A, Tendick F, Ward D, Zaid H, O'Sullivan P, Ascher N. A surgical skills elective to expose preclinical medical students to surgery. Journal of Surgical Research. 2007; 142(2):287-94.