1	Title :
2	Medical intuition: is there an assessment tool? A critical analysis of the literature.
3	
4	
5	Authors :
6	Jérémie Traoré ¹ MD, Thierry Pelaccia ^{2,3} MD, PhD.
7	
8	
9	Affiliations:
10	1: Department of Emergency Medicine, Toulouse University Hospital, France.
11	2: Prehospital Emergency Care Service (SAMU), Strasbourg University Hospital, France.
12	3: Center for training and research in health sciences education, Strasbourg Medical Schhool,
13	France.
14	
15	
16	Corresponding author :
17	Jérémie Traoré, Department of Emergency Medicine, Toulouse University Hospital, France.
18	Hôpital Purpan, CHU de Toulouse, 31059 TOULOUSE Cedex 9, phone: + (33) 5 61 77 21
19	47, email: jeremie.n.traore@gmail.com
20	
21	
22	Key words : Intuition, Clinical reasoning, Dual process, Assessment methods
23	
24	

Introduction: Intuition is a core component of clinical reasoning. It is essential to early generation of hypothesis and accuracy for the final diagnosis. Expert physicians solve clinical cases by using intuitive reasoning based on their experience. Clinical reasoning poses many difficulties for students and residents. We hypothesized that tools for learning and assessing clinical reasoning focus only on analytical reasoning and omit intuitive reasoning. The purpose of this study was to critically analyze clinical reasoning assessment tools and determine whether they contribute to exploring intuitive reasoning.

Methods: In order to determine whether an assessment tool can explore intuitive reasoning, its characteristics must be precisely defined, distinguishing it from analytical reasoning. We identified these characteristics by analyzing the scientific literature and how researchers who have been interested in intuition have explored it in their studies. We will use these characteristics to set up indicators of whether an assessment tool is suitable for exploring intuitive reasoning. We will finally apply these indicators to all clinical reasoning tools and develop a score to determine how well they assess the intuition.

Results: Of all the clinical reasoning assessment tools identified, none appears to fully address
the two criteria identified as essential for exploring a student's intuitive reasoning.

The tools most willing to do this in their current version seem to be the full-scale simulation,the written notes, the think aloud and the self-regulated microanalysis.

43 Discussion: Future studies on this topic should focus on the development of an assessment tool 44 that satisfactorily addresses both criteria for measuring intuition. It would allow teachers to 45 improve medical students training as well as reflecting on expert physicians practices in a 46 continuing education approach.

47

48

50 INTRODUCTION

51

52 Numerous studies on the origin of adverse events associated with care establish that 53 74% to 96% of them are attributed to errors in clinical reasoning, and particularly to diagnostic 54 errors (1–5).

Expert physicians solve clinical cases by responding faster than residents and with greater accuracy, using intuitive reasoning based on their experience (6). Yet, they use the same process of hypothesis generation and testing than medical students (7,8). Thus, expertise is not tied to a particular reasoning process, but rather depends on a clinician's ability to access knowledge from past experience to intuitively generate relevant diagnoses (9).

60 It also appears that context plays a key role in the decision process and that the risk of 61 diagnostic error may be exacerbated by fatigue, mental (over)load, interruptions, ambient noise, 62 sleep deprivation, stress, resource limitations and other environmental factors specific to each 63 workplace (10). Furthermore, malpractice is a fear that leads some physicians to develop 64 defense mechanisms resulting in a greater propensity to hospitalize patients and over-prescribe 65 additional tests (11). In addition to improving the ability of a physician in training to make a 66 diagnosis, there is therefore an economic and crowding reduction issue of hospital services in 67 understanding and learning the cognitive mechanisms and mechanisms of diagnostic error 68 among students and physicians.

69

Since 2008, researchers have adopted a relatively consensual approach to the cognitive functioning of clinical reasoning, based on the *"dual process theory", i.e.* an analytical approach to systematically testing intuitively generated diagnostic hypotheses (12,13). It is now accepted that clinical reasoning is therefore based on two distinct cognitive processes of information treatment: the first, intuitive, is based on experience and the recognition of similarities past 75 events, without any conscious effort and extremely rapidly. The second, analytical, consists of 76 consciously processing the information, for example, to collect data, including those related to 77 complementary examinations, and which aims to confirm or refute the intuitively generated 78 hypotheses. Studies using functional magnetic resonance imaging have shown that these two 79 processes involve distinct brain areas and have different glucose requirements (14,15). 80 Regarding intuitive reasoning, functional MRI has also shown that novices and expert clinicians 81 share a common neural network, but that experts have more neural activation in regions such 82 as the prefrontal cortex, which is involved in cognitive control of memory, task switching, and 83 integration of past events, among other things (16).

A comparative study artificially attempted to exclusively solicit analytical reasoning processes in one group of residents and intuitive processes in another group (17). The results showed that the use of purely analytical reasoning led to a slowing down of the clinical reasoning process by about 30%, with considerable consumption of cognitive resources. In another study, the use of purely intuitive or purely analytical strategies leaded to a decrease in diagnostic performance compared to the use of strategies combining both processes (18).

According to Norman, errors can be related to both intuitive and analytical processes (19). Thus the best level of performance is obtained by adequately combining the two processes. Medical intuition development and assessment in medical students is therefore essential to help them generate early and relevant hypotheses and, subsequently, to reach and accurate the final diagnosis (20).

95

Among the skills that the Royal College of Physicians and Sergeants of Canada (CANMEDS, 2015) believes every physician should develop, clinical reasoning and clinical decision making are explicitly included through a set of resources: the ability to "prioritize the issues to be addressed in a patient encounter" or to "perform timely clinical assessments with recommendations that are presented in an organized manner" (21); in other words, resources
that systematically involve the intuitive and then the analytical phase of clinical reasoning.

102 Clinical reasoning poses many difficulties for students and residents. Between 10% and 103 15% of learners encounter reasoning difficulties during their training (22). These difficulties 104 are often identified at the end of the curriculum and remedial measures are then taken too late 105 to be effective (23). It is therefore essential to promote the development of clinical reasoning 106 and to identify students with difficulties as early as possible.

107 The tools used in formative, summative or certifying assessment significantly influence 108 student learning and how their knowledge is organized in long-term memory (24). In order to 109 foster the development of students' reasoning according to the "*dual process theory*", tools are 110 needed to assess both the analytical and intuitive dimensions of clinical reasoning.

Because intuition has received more recent attention than analytical processes, our hypothesis is that tools for learning and assessing clinical reasoning, most of which were developed in the 1980s to 2000s, focus only on analytical reasoning and omit intuition.

114 The purpose of this study was to critically analyze clinical reasoning assessment tools115 and determine whether they contribute to exploring intuition.

116

117 METHODS

118

In order to determine whether an assessment tool can explores intuition, the characteristics of intuition must be precisely defined, and distinguished from those of analytical reasoning. We will identify these characteristics on the basis of converging data in the literature on how intuition is described, but also by analyzing how researchers who have been interested in intuition have explored it in their studies. We will use these characteristics to set up indicators of whether an assessment tool is suitable for exploring intuitive reasoning. We will finally apply 125 these indicators to all clinical reasoning tools and develop a score to determine how well they 126 assess the intuition.

- 127
- 128

What are the characteristics of intuition?

129 In the course of his intuitive reasoning, the clinician calls upon the recognition of 130 situations experienced in the past, which he/she associates without conscious effort with the current situation. This recognition is made possible by prototypes, i.e. an association of a few 131 132 typical clinical and contextual signs, stored in long-term memory, which is mobilized very 133 quickly each time the physician is confronted with a new clinical situation (25). A prototype 134 contains on average three clinical and contextual data. For example, the prototype for 135 pulmonary embolism would be "dyspnea - unilateral calf pain - context of prolonged 136 immobilization." Thus, each time a physician identifies these three elements in a given clinical situation, he or she will immediately and without conscious effort evoke the hypothesis of 137 138 pulmonary embolism. These prototypes will be enriched and become more and more relevant 139 with experience.

140 Intuition allows the physician to generate initially one to three diagnostic hypotheses, 141 but also, for example, to determine whether the patient is ill or not, requires hospitalization or 142 not, or needs resuscitation, all in less than one minute (26,27). This process is based on 143 immediately available data, and therefore mostly visual, but it also occurs, for example, when 144 reading a medical record or talking to another health professional, even in the absence of the patient (28). Physicians are therefore able to diagnose effectively and accurately using very 145 146 little clinical data (29). Subsequently, during their meeting with the patient, they will again 147 collect clinical and anamnestic data and data related to the results of complementary 148 examinations, enabling him or her to revise or confirm his or her initial hypotheses, or to 149 generate new ones ((27).

151

Based on these considerations, we have identified three main characteristics of intuition, which we describe in Table 1.

- 152
- 153

How is intuition explored in research?

154 In order to determine whether an assessment tool explores a student intuition, we also 155 wanted to determine how researchers who were specifically interested in intuition explored 156 these processes in their studies.

157 To explore intuition, Norman et al. instructed students: "You must make your diagnosis 158 ... as quickly and accurately as possible" (17). Sherbino et al. asked subjects to: "work as 159 quickly as possible without sacrificing accuracy" (30). In these two studies, subjects were given 160 an average of 59 to 72 seconds to solve a case. By asking this same type of question, Mamede 161 et al. sought to encourage subjects to reason intuitively through the activation of prototypes, 162 thereby minimizing the chances of engaging in elaborate analysis of the clinical case (31). By 163 asking participants to quickly give their first impression of a clinical case, they were encouraged 164 to use their intuition (32).

165 Ilgen et al. explored another way of eliciting intuition by instructing, "*This clinical case may look like things you have seen before. Trust your sense of familiarity*" (33). Ark et al. refer
167 to this approach as "similarity-based" reasoning (18).

168

169 Characteristics of a teaching tool to explore intuition

The description of intuition in the scientific literature as well as the way in which researchers explore intuition in students has allowed us to identify two indicators corresponding to the fundamental characteristics of a teaching tool aimed at exploring a learner's intuition (see Table 2).

Clinical reasoning assessment tools and score assigning

176 A recent literature review sought to identify which of the learning assessment tools 177 commonly used in medicine assess clinical reasoning, without distinguishing whether these 178 tools assess the intuitive and/or analytical dimension of clinical reasoning (34).

The tools were described according to their ability to explore clinical reasoning in seven pre-established stages: Information gathering - Hypothesis generation - Problem representation - Differential diagnosis - Diagnostic exploration - Diagnostic justification - Treatment and Management. A group of experts assigned a score for each assessment tool (0 to 2). A tool was considered "good" (to assess clinical reasoning) with a score of 1.1 out of 2. Of the nineteen

184 assessment tools, we therefore analyzed only those with an overall mean ≥ 1.1 .

185 We have thus retained :

Four tools used in academic settings: short and long answer questions, Modified Essay
Questions (MEQs), Patient Management Problems (PMPs), and oral exams.

188Two assessment tools used in simulated environments: the Objective Structured Clinical

189 Examination (OSCE) and the Full Scale Simulation (FSS)

Seven assessment tools used in the health care setting: direct observation (via the miniclinical evaluation exercise), global assessment, oral case presentation, written notes (PostEncounter Forms, the Interpretive summary, Differential diagnosis, Explanation of reasoning,
and Alternatives assessment tool), Chart-stimulated recall interview, Think-aloud, and Selfregulated learning microanalysis.

In this study, we therefore evaluated thirteen tools that were considered "good" or "very good"for exploring medical students' clinical reasoning.

197

Each tool was scored based on its ability to assess intuition, thereby answering theresearch question.

200	This score was based on the two measurement indicators we previously identified.
201	For each tool and each indicator, we have associated one of the following three features:
202	\checkmark Planned by the current design of the tool.
203	Partially planned and requiring minor changes.
204	imes Absent or requiring complete redesign of the tool, thus no longer ensuring its validity.
205	This scoring has been done separately by each of the two authors of this study. Then
206	results were shared among them. In case of initial disagreement on a scoring, a consensus was
207	find on the final scoring.
208	
209	RESULTS (35–60)
210	
211	Table 3 summarizes the score obtained by each of the thirteen clinical reasoning
212	assessment tools according to their ability to explore a student's intuition. See additional file for
213	a brief description of each assessment tool.
214	No clinical reasoning assessment tool fully satisfies the two essential indicators for
215	assessing medical students' intuition.
216	Apart from the oral assessment, all the tools used in the academic environment do not
217	meet either of the two indicators. Of the tools used in the simulated environment, only the full
218	scale simulation partially meets both indicators and requires adaptations in the way the
219	debriefing should be conducted to explore the student's intuition.
220	The tools used in the care setting seem to better address both indicators. In particular
221	the written notes, the think-aloud and the self-regulated microanalysis. In contrast, the global
222	assessment, the oral case presentation and the chart stimulation recall interview do not meet
223	any of the indicators for exploring a student's intuition.
224	
223	-

225 **DISCUSSION**

226

227	For decades, medical intuition has been considered as a "mystical" ability, not accessible
228	to consciousness and which should never prevail over analytical and rational judgment (12).

The purpose of this study was to bring together recent scientific discoveries related to intuition and the way students' clinical reasoning is trained and assessed, to determine whether the clinical reasoning assessment tools currently in use are capable of exploring intuition and to enrich knowledge in a prolific field of research in medical education.

Of all the clinical reasoning assessment tools identified, none appears to fully addressthe two criteria identified as essential for exploring a student's intuition.

235 The tools most willing to do this in their current version are the full-scale simulation 236 (within a simulated environment) and the written notes, the think aloud and the self-regulated 237 microanalysis (within care settings), i.e. tools where the environment is either the closest to 238 reality or the reality itself. These results are in line with the study by Daniel et al. where the 239 above-mentioned tools also had the best scores for assessing clinical reasoning in its entirety 240 (34). Conversely, academic assessment tools do not explore a student's intuition. Yet they are 241 currently the most widely used tools for certifying medical students at any point in their 242 education (61).

This study addresses some limitations. One of the main limitations is the lack of systematic reviewing of the literature. The two indicators we have identified emerged from the analysis of the main studies we found on the subject. A thorough analysis of the literature, using the systematic method of searching for articles in a meta-analysis, would ensure that no articles were missed which could enrich the indicators already found. Another limitation concerns how the tools have been scored. Only the two authors participated in that assessing. There would have been greater precision if there were several assessors. However, because of the identification of the two indicators, each teacher is in a position to judge whether an assessmenttool sufficiently addresses them or not.

252

253 CONCLUSION

254

It is now widely recognized by the scientific community in medical education that intuition is at the heart of an expert's reasoning and therefore conditions the adequate management of a patient (11,62). There is therefore an urgent need to assess medical students on their intuition in both formative and summative ways.

Future studies on this topic should therefore focus on the development of tools that satisfactorily address both criteria for assessing intuition in medical students. Focusing on a tool to assess intuitive reasoning would allow teachers to improve medical students training as well as reflecting on expert physicians practices in a continuing education approach.

263

264 **BIBLIOGRAPHY**

265

Kachalia A, Gandhi TK, Puopolo AL, Yoon C, Thomas EJ, Griffey R, et al. Missed and
 delayed diagnoses in the emergency department: a study of closed malpractice claims
 from 4 liability insurers. Ann Emerg Med. 2007 Feb;49(2):196–205.

Pelaccia T, Messman AM, Kline JA. Misdiagnosis and failure to diagnose in emergency
 care: Causes and empathy as a solution. Patient Educ Couns. 2020 Feb 28;103(8):1650–
 6.

Makary MA, Daniel M. Medical error-the third leading cause of death in the US. BMJ.
 2016 May 3;353:i2139.

4. Institute of Medicine (US) Committee on Quality of Health Care in America. To Err is

275		Human: Building a Safer Health System. Kohn LT, Corrigan JM, Donaldson MS,
276		editors. Washington (DC): National Academies Press (US); 2000.
277	5.	Graber ML, Franklin N, Gordon R. Diagnostic error in internal medicine. Arch Intern
278		Med. 2005 Jul 11;165(13):1493–9.
279	6.	Monteiro SD, Sherbino JD, Ilgen JS, Dore KL, Wood TJ, Young ME, et al. Disrupting
280		diagnostic reasoning: do interruptions, instructions, and experience affect the diagnostic
281		accuracy and response time of residents and emergency physicians? Acad Med. 2015
282		Apr;90(4):511–7.
283	7.	Neufeld VR, Norman GR, Feightner JW, Barrows HS. Clinical problem-solving by
284		medical students: a cross-sectional and longitudinal analysis. Med Educ. 1981
285		Sep;15(5):315–22.
286	8.	Elstein, arthur S., lee S. shulman, and sarah A. sprafka, et al. medical problem solving:
287		an analysis of clinical reasoning. cambridge, massachusetts: harvard university press,
288		1978. Newsl Sci Technol Human Values. 1978 Jun;3(3):50-1.
289	9.	Brush JE, Sherbino J, Norman GR. How expert clinicians intuitively recognize a
290		medical diagnosis. Am J Med. 2017 Feb 24;130(6):629–34.
291	10.	Pelaccia T. Decisionmaking in Emergency Medicine: Experienced-Based and
292		Contextually Anchored Rather Than Evidence Based and Universal. Ann Emerg Med.
293		2018 Nov;72(5):624–5.
294	11.	Pelaccia T, Plotnick LH, Audétat M-C, Nendaz M, Lubarsky S, Torabi N, et al. A
295		scoping review of physicians' clinical reasoning in emergency departments. Ann Emerg
296		Med. 2020 Feb;75(2):206–17.
297	12.	Pelaccia T, Tardif J, Triby E, Charlin B. An analysis of clinical reasoning through a
298		recent and comprehensive approach: the dual-process theory. Med Educ Online. 2011
299		Mar 14;16.

- 300 13. Croskerry P. A universal model of diagnostic reasoning. Acad Med. 2009
 301 Aug;84(8):1022–8.
- 302 14. Goel V, Dolan RJ. Explaining modulation of reasoning by belief. Cognition. 2003
 303 Feb;87(1):B11-22.
- Masicampo EJ, Baumeister RF. Toward a physiology of dual-process reasoning and
 judgment: lemonade, willpower, and expensive rule-based analysis. Psychol Sci. 2008
 Mar;19(3):255–60.
- 307 16. Durning SJ, Costanzo ME, Artino AR, Graner J, van der Vleuten C, Beckman TJ, et al.
- 308 Neural basis of nonanalytical reasoning expertise during clinical evaluation. Brain
 309 Behav. 2015 Mar;5(3):e00309.
- 310 17. Norman G, Sherbino J, Dore K, Wood T, Young M, Gaissmaier W, et al. The etiology
 311 of diagnostic errors: a controlled trial of system 1 versus system 2 reasoning. Acad Med.
- 312 2014 Feb;89(2):277–84.
- 313 18. Ark TK, Brooks LR, Eva KW. Giving learners the best of both worlds: do clinical
 314 teachers need to guard against teaching pattern recognition to novices? Acad Med. 2006
 315 Apr;81(4):405–9.
- 316 19. Norman GR, Monteiro SD, Sherbino J, Ilgen JS, Schmidt HG, Mamede S. The causes
 317 of errors in clinical reasoning: cognitive biases, knowledge deficits, and dual process
 318 thinking. Acad Med. 2017;92(1):23–30.
- 319 20. Barrows HS, Norman GR, Neufeld VR, Feightner JW. The clinical reasoning of
- 320 randomly selected physicians in general medical practice. Clin Invest Med.
- 321 1982;5(1):49–55.
- 322 21. Frank JR, Snell L, Sherbino J. Canmeds 2015 Physician Competency Framework. The
 323 Royal College Of Physicians And Surgeons Of Canada; 2015.
- 324 22. Faustinella F, Ph., Orl P, Colletti L, Juneja H, Perkowski L, et al. Medical Students'

325		Performance in the IV Year Exit Exam: Effect of Clinical Reasoning Exercises, Self-
326		Observation on Tape, and Faculty Feedback on Clinical Skills.
327	23.	Hauer KE, Teherani A, Irby DM, Kerr KM, O'Sullivan PS. Approaches to medical
328		student remediation after a comprehensive clinical skills examination. Med Educ. 2008
329		Jan;42(1):104–12.
330	24.	Roediger HL, Butler AC. The critical role of retrieval practice in long-term retention.
331		Trends Cogn Sci (Regul Ed). 2011 Jan;15(1):20-7.
332	25.	Pelaccia T, Collectif. Comment (mieux) former et évaluer les étudiants en medecine et
333		sciences santé (Guide pratique) (French Edition). De Boeck supérieur; 2016.
334	26.	Wiswell J, Tsao K, Bellolio MF, Hess EP, Cabrera D. "Sick" or "not-sick": accuracy of
335		System 1 diagnostic reasoning for the prediction of disposition and acuity in patients
336		presenting to an academic ED. Am J Emerg Med. 2013 Oct;31(10):1448-52.
337	27.	Pelaccia T, Tardif J, Triby E, Ammirati C, Bertrand C, Charlin B, et al. Insights into
338		emergency physicians' minds in the seconds before and into a patient encounter. Intern
339		Emerg Med. 2015 Oct;10(7):865–73.
340	28.	Pelaccia T, Tardif J, Triby E, Ammirati C, Bertrand C, Dory V, et al. How and when do
341		expert emergency physicians generate and evaluate diagnostic hypotheses? A
342		qualitative study using head-mounted video cued-recall interviews. Ann Emerg Med.
343		2014 Dec;64(6):575–85.
344	29.	Groves M, O'Rourke P, Alexander H. The clinical reasoning characteristics of
345		diagnostic experts. Med Teach. 2003 May;25(3):308-13.
346	30.	Sherbino J, Dore KL, Wood TJ, Young ME, Gaissmaier W, Kreuger S, et al. The
347		relationship between response time and diagnostic accuracy. Acad Med. 2012
348		Jun;87(6):785–91.
349	31.	Mamede S, van Gog T, van den Berge K, Rikers RMJP, van Saase JLCM, van Guldener

- C, et al. Effect of availability bias and reflective reasoning on diagnostic accuracy
 among internal medicine residents. JAMA. 2010 Sep 15;304(11):1198–203.
- 352 32. Ilgen JS, Bowen JL, Yarris LM, Fu R, Lowe RA, Eva K. Adjusting our lens: can
- 353 developmental differences in diagnostic reasoning be harnessed to improve health
- 354 professional and trainee assessment? Acad Emerg Med. 2011 Oct;18 Suppl 2:S79-86.
- 355 33. Ilgen JS, Bowen JL, McIntyre LA, Banh KV, Barnes D, Coates WC, et al. Comparing
- 356 diagnostic performance and the utility of clinical vignette-based assessment under
- 357 testing conditions designed to encourage either automatic or analytic thought. Acad
- 358 Med. 2013 Oct;88(10):1545–51.
- 359 34. Daniel M, Rencic J, Durning SJ, Holmboe E, Santen SA, Lang V, et al. Clinical
- reasoning assessment methods: A scoping review and practical guidance. Acad Med.
 2019 Jun;94(6):902–12.
- 362 35. de Graaff E, Post GJ, Drop MJ. Validation of a new measure of clinical problem363 solving. Med Educ. 1987 May;21(3):213–8.
- 364 36. Day SC, Norcini JJ, Diserens D, Cebul RD, Schwartz JS, Beck LH, et al. The validity of
 an essay test of clinical judgment. Acad Med. 1990 Sep;65(9 Suppl):S39-40.
- 366 37. Feletti GI. Reliability and validity studies on modified essay questions. J Med Educ.
 367 1980 Nov;55(11):933-41.
- 368 38. Engel CE, Feletti GI, Leeder SR. Assessment of medical students in a new curriculum.
 369 Assessment in Higher Education. 1980 Sep;5(3):279–93.
- 370 39. McCarthy WH, Gonnella JS. The simulated Patient Management Problem: a technique
- 371 for evaluating and teaching clinical competence. Br J Med Educ. 1967 Dec;1(5):348–
- 372 52.
- 373 40. Anastakis DJ, Cohen R, Reznick RK. The structured oral examination as a method for
- 374 assessing surgical residents. The American Journal of Surgery. 1991 Jul;162(1):67–70.

- 375 41. Wass V, Wakeford R, Neighbour R, Van der Vleuten C, Royal College of General
- 376 Practitioners. Achieving acceptable reliability in oral examinations: an analysis of the
- 377 Royal College of General Practitioners membership examination's oral component.
- 378 Med Educ. 2003 Feb;37(2):126–31.
- 42. Khan KZ, Ramachandran S, Gaunt K, Pushkar P. The Objective Structured Clinical
- 380 Examination (OSCE): AMEE Guide No. 81. Part I: an historical and theoretical
- 381 perspective. Med Teach. 2013 Sep;35(9):e1437-46.
- 382 43. Khan KZ, Gaunt K, Ramachandran S, Pushkar P. The Objective Structured Clinical
- 383 Examination (OSCE): AMEE Guide No. 81. Part II: organisation & administration.
- 384 Med Teach. 2013 Sep;35(9):e1447-63.
- 44. Lioce L, editor. Healthcare Simulation Dictionary. Agency for Healthcare Research and
 Quality; 2020.
- 387 45. Bearman M, Greenhill J, Nestel D. The power of simulation: a large-scale narrative
 388 analysis of learners' experiences. Med Educ. 2019;53(4):369–79.
- 389 46. Kogan JR, Holmboe ES, Hauer KE. Tools for direct observation and assessment of
- 390 clinical skills of medical trainees: a systematic review. JAMA. 2009 Sep
- 391 23;302(12):1316–26.
- 392 47. Pelaccia T. Comment (mieux) superviser les étudiants en sciences de la santé dans leurs
 393 stages et dans leurs activités de recherche ? De Boeck Supérieur; 2018.
- 394 48. Norcini JJ, Blank LL, Duffy FD, Fortna GS. The mini-CEX: a method for assessing
- 395 clinical skills. Ann Intern Med. 2003 Mar 18;138(6):476–81.
- 396 49. Shea JA, Norcini JJ, Kimball HR. Relationships of ratings of clinical competence and
- ABIM scores to certification status. Acad Med. 1993 Oct;68(10 Suppl):S22-4.
- 398 50. Crossley J, Johnson G, Booth J, Wade W. Good questions, good answers: construct
- alignment improves the performance of workplace-based assessment scales. Med Educ.

400 2011 Jun;45(6):560–9.

- 401 51. Bordage G, Connell KJ, Chang RW, Gecht MR, Sinacore JM. Assessing the semantic
 402 content of clinical case presentations: studies of reliability and concurrent validity. Acad
 403 Med. 1997 Oct;72(10 Suppl 1):S37-9.
- 404 52. Lewin LO, Beraho L, Dolan S, Millstein L, Bowman D. Interrater reliability of an oral
 405 case presentation rating tool in a pediatric clerkship. Teach Learn Med. 2013;25(1):31–
 406 8.
- 407 53. Durning SJ, Artino A, Boulet J, La Rochelle J, Van der Vleuten C, Arze B, et al. The
 408 feasibility, reliability, and validity of a post-encounter form for evaluating clinical
 409 reasoning. Med Teach. 2012;34(1):30–7.
- 410 54. Baker EA, Ledford CH, Fogg L, Way DP, Park YS. The IDEA Assessment Tool:
- 411 Assessing the Reporting, Diagnostic Reasoning, and Decision-Making Skills
- 412 Demonstrated in Medical Students' Hospital Admission Notes. Teach Learn Med.
 413 2015;27(2):163–73.
- Goulet F, Jacques A, Gagnon R, Racette P, Sieber W. Assessment of family physicians'
 performance using patient charts: interrater reliability and concordance with chartstimulated recall interview. Eval Health Prof. 2007 Dec;30(4):376–92.
- 417 56. Schipper S, Ross S. Structured teaching and assessment: a new chart-stimulated recall
 418 worksheet for family medicine residents. Can Fam Physician. 2010 Sep;56(9):958–9,
 419 e352.
- 420 57. Sibbald M, de Bruin ABH. Feasibility of self-reflection as a tool to balance clinical
- 421 reasoning strategies. Adv Health Sci Educ Theory Pract. 2012 Aug;17(3):419–29.
- 422 58. Chatterjee S, Ng J, Kwan K, Matsumoto ED. Assessing the surgical decision making
- 423 abilities of novice and proficient urologists. J Urol. 2009 May;181(5):2251–6.
- 424 59. Cleary TJ, Callan GL, Zimmerman BJ. Assessing Self-Regulation as a Cyclical,

- 425 Context-Specific Phenomenon: Overview and Analysis of SRL Microanalytic
- 426 Protocols. Education Research International. 2012;2012:1–19.
- 427 60. Artino AR, Cleary TJ, Dong T, Hemmer PA, Durning SJ. Exploring clinical reasoning
- 428 in novices: a self-regulated learning microanalytic assessment approach. Med Educ.
- 429 2014 Mar;48(3):280–91.
- 430 61. Gaur L, Skochelak S. STUDENTJAMA. Evaluating competence in medical students.
 431 JAMA. 2004 May 5;291(17):2143.
- 432 62. Pelaccia T, Tardif J, Triby E, Ammirati C, Bertrand C, Dory V, et al. From Context
- 433 Comes Expertise: How Do Expert Emergency Physicians Use Their Know-Who to
- 434 Make Decisions? Ann Emerg Med. 2016;67(6):747–51.