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Clinical reasoning by veterinary students in the first opinion setting: Is it encouraged, is it practised?

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1 **Abstract**

2 A mixed-methods study was performed to investigate the perceived importance  
3 and efficacy of teaching clinical reasoning (CR) skills by students and faculty in a  
4 university first opinion veterinary practice, as this has not previously been  
5 described. Qualitative analysis of interview data, discussing objectives and factors  
6 considered important for effective learning and the understanding of CR, was  
7 performed, alongside quantitative analysis of the 'preceptor thinking promotion  
8 scale' (PTPS) and the 'learner thinking behaviour scale' (LTBS) (assessing the level  
9 of CR encouraged by clinicians and displayed by students) in peri-consultation  
10 discussions. Themes that emerged from analysis of the interviews regarding  
11 objectives were the desire for developing effective data acquisition, improvement  
12 in data manipulation and CR. Themes associated with effective learning were a  
13 positive student-centred learning environment and feedback. Type II CR was  
14 fairly-well described, but recognition of the importance of type I CR was poor by  
15 clinicians and students and, in some instances, was deemed to be inappropriate.  
16 Although many clinicians and students expressed a desire to develop student CR,  
17 there was little evidence of this actually occurring in the interactions analysed,  
18 with low PTPS and LTBS scores achieved. There was also poor understanding of  
19 whether effective teaching of CR had occurred, demonstrated by a lack of  
20 correlation between LTBS and the interaction score for development of student  
21 CR. Further training of clinicians and students of the value of type I CR in first  
22 opinion practice is required, as well as clinician education in how best to support  
23 the development of CR in students.

24

25 **Keywords:** Learner thinking behaviour scale, preceptor thinking promotion scale,  
26 analytical reasoning, non-analytical reasoning

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32 **Introduction**

33

34 Even in a developed country such as the United Kingdom, 70% of veterinarians  
35 working within the veterinary profession are engaged in first opinion practice and  
36 only 8% are working in referral practice.<sup>1</sup> Therefore the professional skills  
37 required to work as a general practitioner should be an important part of  
38 veterinary education. Clinical reasoning is one such skill, being recognised as  
39 'critical and central to practice'.<sup>2</sup> Explicit teaching of clinical reasoning is receiving  
40 increased attention within veterinary education<sup>3,4,5</sup> but, when it is practised at  
41 universities, it is often in a referral context, despite many universities having first  
42 opinion practices where clinical reasoning can be taught. It is suggested that the  
43 level of supervision and the demonstration of high quality clinical reasoning is  
44 variable in the training of medical students<sup>6</sup> and this is probably also true for  
45 veterinary students. Case discussions between clinicians and students are  
46 essential for the development of clinical reasoning with the questioning technique  
47 used by the clinician being of major importance.<sup>7</sup> The lack of research into how  
48 clinical reasoning is taught in the first opinion setting means it is unclear whether  
49 the teaching provided is effective or appropriate for the cases seen, although  
50 veterinary graduates do report poor acquisition of these skills at university.<sup>4</sup>

51

52 This study aims to explore the teaching of clinical reasoning in a university-based  
53 first opinion practice setting. This has implications not only for university practice  
54 but also for extra-mural studies, given the huge reliance of UK veterinary schools  
55 on private general practices for student teaching (with the Royal College of  
56 Veterinary Surgeons stipulating that students should spend 26 weeks in clinical  
57 extra-mural studies placements during the final three years of their training).<sup>8</sup> The  
58 objective of this study was to investigate interactions between clinicians and  
59 students regarding first opinion consultations. The four research questions  
60 investigated were:

- 61 1. What are the objectives students and clinicians have for a rotation in first  
62 opinion practice?
- 63 2. What are the factors that students and clinicians consider important in  
64 their discussions about consultations?
- 65 3. What do clinicians and students in this environment understand by the  
66 term clinical reasoning?

67 4. Does clinician questioning technique affect the likelihood of displays of  
68 clinical reasoning?

69

## 70 **Materials and methods**

71 A mixed-methods case study of students and clinicians at the Royal Veterinary  
72 College's (RVC's) Beaumont Sainsbury Animal Hospital (BSAH: a first opinion  
73 practice where all final year veterinary students spend a two week rotation) was  
74 performed. Clinicians and students assigned to routine patient consultations  
75 during the second week of the rotation were enrolled onto the study once consent  
76 was obtained. Prior to starting consultations, each student and clinician was  
77 privately interviewed. The students and clinicians were questioned on their aims  
78 for the clinical rotation and their thoughts on what makes a positive peri-  
79 consultation interaction between clinicians and students. They were also  
80 questioned about their understanding of the term 'clinical reasoning'. Transcripts  
81 were made of these interviews and the text was anonymised, then coded and  
82 analysed for themes and subthemes.

83

84 As is standard practice in veterinary clinical rotations, at the BSAH, the student  
85 performs the consultation with the client and patient without supervision, prior  
86 to presenting their findings to the clinician outwith the consultation room. The  
87 case is then discussed and a treatment plan decided upon before both student and  
88 clinician return together to the consultation room. These 'peri-consultation'  
89 interactions between clinicians and students were recorded and transcribed.

90 Each interaction was assigned a score by one non-blinded, experienced  
91 veterinarian (with a qualification in medical education) on the 'Preceptor  
92 thinking-promotion scale' (PTPS) (Table One) and the 'Learner thinking-  
93 behaviour scale' (LTBS) (Table Two), both of which have been previously  
94 validated in a medical setting.<sup>9</sup> Correlation between the PTPS and LTBS scores for  
95 each interaction was assessed using Spearman's rho.

96

97 After each peri-consultation interaction, both the student and the clinician gave  
98 the interaction a score (in private) from 0 to 3 regarding how beneficial they felt

99 that learning encounter was in terms of student development of clinical reasoning  
100 (with a definition for clinical reasoning provided). Data were assessed for  
101 normalcy and then the relationship between this interaction score for clinical  
102 reasoning and the PTPS and LTBS scores for the interaction was assessed using  
103 Spearman's rho with a p value of less than 0.05 deemed significant. All statistical  
104 calculations were performed using an on-line statistics package.<sup>a</sup>

105 Ethical approval for this study was obtained from the RVC's Ethics and Welfare  
106 Committee (M2014 0023).

## 107 **Results**

### 108 *Qualitative data: Open Questions*

109 Six clinicians and 11 final year veterinary students (10 female and 1 male) were  
110 interviewed for the study. When considering the aims for the time the student  
111 spends at the BSAH and the factors that made the peri-consultation interactions  
112 between clinicians and students a positive learning encounter, 4 key themes were  
113 identified which are described below and contextualized with the participants'  
114 own words.

#### 115 Theme 1: Effective data acquisition

116 There was a strong theme relating to the need to generate an improvement in the  
117 students' skills involved in effective data acquisition such as physical examination  
118 skills, history taking skills, client communication skills and time management.  
119 Every student and almost every clinician mentioned this aspect as a desired  
120 outcome of time spent in the first opinion practice. Often there was a recognition  
121 that improvement in multiple skills was required, such as with Student H:

122 '...communication skills is the top of my list and I think that would just be a bit of  
123 everything, so just welcoming clients, being able to get a good history, asking the  
124 right questions. And then trying to multitask and do a physical exam and .... let  
125 them speak at the same time and listen, I think that is what I want to do.'

126 Clinician A also emphasized the requirement to develop these skills:

127 'I think for me it's about client rapport because I think that's probably the most  
128 important thing..... Then just to see their clinical exam skills and just time  
129 management as well is quite important'

130 Theme 2: Data manipulation and clinical reasoning

131 Some of the clinicians showed a desire to improve the students' consideration and  
132 analysis of a case, including aspects of clinical reasoning, as described by Clinician  
133 B:

134 'I think mostly their ability to logically problem-solve, so that's the biggest thing,  
135 that they often are quite good at jumping to conclusions rather than actually  
136 sitting and logically working things through, so I generally aim to try and get them  
137 to problem-solve even for straightforward things so they just get into the habit of  
138 doing it, really.'

139 Processing and manipulating the data obtained from a consultation was  
140 mentioned by some of the students as something they desired to develop. In  
141 several cases students recognised that help from clinicians would allow them to  
142 progress to this stage as with Student A:

143 'I think when the clinician sort of asks you your opinion and what your sort of  
144 thought process was, maybe to do with defining and refining the problem and  
145 thinking about where you'd start going either with differential diagnoses or what  
146 other tests or further investigations you'd need to do to get to your differentials.  
147 I think ... and then obviously sort of helping to steer it a bit was really helpful.'

148

149 Theme 3: A positive student-centred learning environment

150 When considering what made a positive learning encounter the majority of the  
151 clinicians discussed how important they felt their attitude and approachability  
152 was. Clinician E stated:

153 'It can be really, really scary being in this kind of a situation and it's hard for them  
154 not to feel like we're scrutinising their every move. So if I can have a bit of a joke  
155 and a bit of fun with them while we're doing that and do everything I can to make  
156 them not feel like they're being judged, because I think people learn better when  
157 they're relaxed'

158 Students also felt a positive relaxed relationship between clinician and student  
159 was important such as Student C:

160 'I feel a bit of understanding, really, because we're not perfect....I feel if you come  
161 out and they're sort of positive and you've missed things but they kind of work  
162 with you to resolve them and go back and fill in those gaps, I find for me that  
163 gives me more confidence to keep going rather than if you come out and it's, oh,  
164 you've missed this, you've missed that, and sort of a bit of reinforcement, really,  
165 ideally.'

166 A comfortable and relaxed interaction was therefore seen as important. The  
167 discussion focused on the responsibility for this lying with the clinician. However,  
168 some students also mentioned their own emotions and behaviour as a factor they  
169 felt they wanted to learn to control or improve upon. They felt under-confident  
170 and nervous which clinicians recognised could impede their performance.

171 Aspects of student-centred learning, whereby the student is encouraged to  
172 develop autonomy and responsibility for their own learning, were also alluded to  
173 by clinicians. In a clinical teaching situation this is often accompanied by a sense  
174 of collegiality between learner and teacher allowing for a 'joint' approach and  
175 analysis of the case. Some students and clinicians recognised that a good  
176 interaction may involve the clinician asking the student's opinion, with them  
177 working as a team rather than as teacher and learner, or at least with the student's  
178 opinion being actively sought and discussed or critiqued.

179 Theme 4: Feedback

180 Feedback was a common focus for both clinicians and students. Clinician D  
181 particularly focused on this aspect:



182 'I think the clinicians having the ability to call up on that and say, no, that is not  
183 right, you need to work on this area, having good feedback which is constructive  
184 but also honest'

185 Many possible forms of feedback were discussed but questioning the students was  
186 commonly recognised as a way students could improve their understanding of a  
187 patient's clinical situation and recognise the limitations of their knowledge.  
188 Student J stated:

189

190 '...actually being asked questions you don't know the answer to or when you make  
191 mistakes, oddly enough, that's sort of when you remember it and you go back and  
192 you look it up ... it's very helpful to actually have that sort of feeling of, I should  
193 know something and to go and look it up then later ...'

194

195 Although both clinicians and students frequently discussed student questioning,  
196 the style of questioning was not mentioned by any participants.

#### 197 *Qualitative data: Understanding of clinical reasoning*

198 Following the open questions about their expectations, the participants were  
199 probed further on their understanding of the term clinical reasoning. There were  
200 three recurrent themes that emerged from both students and clinicians.

#### 201 Logical and methodical

202 A logical and methodical approach to a case was often referred to by both students  
203 and clinicians and there was also a strong focus on defining and understanding the  
204 patient's problem(s). Clinician C expressed this:

205

206 '...coming up with a logical list of potential problems and then reasoning through  
207 as to what could potentially be going on with the patient and why.'

208

209 Several students considered clinical reasoning as a process whereby the problem  
210 was approached by breaking it down to basic components aiding understanding  
211 whereas this was not described by clinicians. Student B stated:

212

213 'I understand it is going back to first principles and understanding what clinical  
214 signs you're seeing and developing those...'

215

216 Pragmatic

217 The importance of pragmatism in clinical reasoning was noted by several  
218 clinicians for example Clinician D:

219

220 'Now I think some people, especially the students, feel that they should be getting  
221 that answer and that their clinical reasoning has to go from A to Z as one fell swoop  
222 and that's it. But for me, I feel that often the reasoning is at least getting on that  
223 pathway and getting a good approach. You're not expecting to have the answer at  
224 the end of a consultation.'

225

226 This pragmatism was less frequently mentioned by students,

227

228 Pattern recognition

229 Two students specifically stated that clinical reasoning was not the same thing as  
230 pattern recognition, with an implication that the former was a good, and the latter  
231 a poor, technique. No clinicians used the term 'pattern recognition' when  
232 considering clinical reasoning.

233

234

235 *Quantitative data: Peri-consultation interactions*

236 Thirty peri-consultation interactions were recorded and transcribed. One  
237 clinician (Clinician F) was interviewed but did not take part in an interaction; all  
238 other interviewees did. The number of interactions for clinicians ranged from 0 to  
239 8 and the number for students ranged from 1-4. Of the 30 interactions, 15 had a  
240 PTPS score of 1, 14 had a score of 2 and 1 had a score of 3. Fourteen interactions  
241 had an LTBS score of 1, 14 had a score of 2 and 2 had a score of 3.

242

243 A moderate positive correlation of  $R=0.585$  was found between the PTPS and  
244 LTBS scores for the interactions ( $p<0.001$ ), indicating a correlation between the

245 quality of the students' verbalization of their thoughts and the nature of the  
246 clinicians' questioning. The score the students gave the interactions for  
247 developing clinical reasoning correlated moderately ( $R=0.730$ ) with the PTPS  
248 scores ( $p<0.001$ ) but only weakly ( $R=0.373$ ) with the LTBS scores ( $p=0.036$ ). The  
249 clinicians' interaction scores only correlated weakly ( $R=0.394$ ) with the PTPS  
250 scores ( $p=0.031$ ) and did not correlate with the LTBS scores. This suggests that  
251 both students and clinicians were better at judging the quality of the teaching than  
252 the quality of the students' own thought processes, and that the students were  
253 more aware of their own learning than the clinicians.

254

## 255 **Discussion**

256

257 The results of this study clearly answer the research questions posed in the  
258 introduction. Importantly, the use of the PTPS and LTBS allowed validated  
259 quantitative analysis of the teaching of, and student displays of, clinical reasoning,  
260 assessing whether clinical questioning technique affects the likelihood of displays  
261 of clinical reasoning. PTPS and LTBS were found to be moderately correlated in  
262 the interactions studied here ( $R=0.585$  compared to  $0.62$  in the original study  
263 validating the PTPS and LTBS)<sup>5</sup>, proving that clinician questioning technique is  
264 correlated with student displays of clinical reasoning. Although causation cannot  
265 be proven, it is likely that higher level clinician questioning stimulates greater  
266 displays of student clinical reasoning. Both the higher levels of promotion of  
267 thinking and the higher levels of student thinking (i.e. the top scores for both the  
268 PTPS and the LTBS) were rarely seen in this study with only 3 scores of 3 seen in  
269 total out of 30 interactions. Therefore, despite many clinicians and students  
270 stating they wanted to teach or learn clinical reasoning this was actually not  
271 commonly achieved. Clinicians and students were also unable to assess their  
272 performance, with clinicians in particular seeming to be poor judges of the quality  
273 of the learning experience for the learner (demonstrated by the lack of correlation  
274 between LTBS and the score given for how beneficial the interaction had been for  
275 students).

276

277 It is important to question why there was such a lack of insight. Both clinicians

278 and students stated that both data acquisition and manipulation (including clinical  
279 reasoning) were objectives for this rotation in first opinion practice.  
280 Understanding of the term clinical reasoning was explored revealing there was a  
281 clear concept of clinical reasoning which was similar between students and  
282 clinicians. The terms logical and methodical were commonly used which is likely  
283 to reflect the explicit formal teaching on clinical reasoning provided to both  
284 clinicians and students at the RVC.<sup>5</sup> However, the 'breaking down' of a problem  
285 into constituent parts as an aspect of clinical reasoning was mentioned only by  
286 students (not clinicians), although this fell within the realm of a logical and  
287 methodical approach. This could be due to the greater experience of clinicians,  
288 meaning that this stage of reasoning was easily performed and not worthy of  
289 mention, whereas for students it was still something requiring effort and thought.  
290 It could also be considered that the students were 'over-complicating' the  
291 problems being faced in a first opinion setting, which may not need this level of  
292 analysis. This was encouraged by some clinicians, with Clinician B, for example,  
293 reporting encouraging the use of a 'problem-solving' approach even for  
294 straightforward cases to ensure this method was generally used.

295

296 Consistent with this idea of over-analysis, both students and clinicians defined  
297 clinical reasoning as an analytical 'type II' practice by focusing on a model which  
298 requires cognitive effort and consideration of the problem prior to reflection on  
299 how to progress. Although type II thinking is an important part of clinical  
300 reasoning, as an individual progresses from novice to expert, type I rapid, non-  
301 analytical thinking, increases in frequency.<sup>4,10</sup> This aspect of clinical reasoning was  
302 not discussed by students (who are less likely to use it, although they may do so in  
303 more common conditions that they have encountered frequently in their training)  
304 or clinicians (who will regularly be using this method). In fact, two students  
305 discussed the fact that clinical reasoning was 'different' from pattern recognition,  
306 and suggested that type I thinking was not an appropriate strategy for clinicians.  
307 This is in contrast to the reality of clinical reasoning, whereby previous clinical  
308 experience and knowledge of the literature is used to interpret the case, and it is  
309 well recognised that 'pattern recognition' contributes to decision making  
310 processes in experienced clinicians in the form of 'type I' thinking.<sup>4</sup> This confusion

311 about what clinical reasoning entails has previously been reported in veterinary  
312 students and clinicians working in academia, particularly with regard to pattern  
313 recognition<sup>11,12</sup> and it is reported that veterinary preceptors desire increased  
314 training in clinical reasoning.<sup>13</sup> It is important to improve understanding in this  
315 area, as students can start to develop 'illness scripts' early in their training, which  
316 alongside analytical reasoning when required, will allow for optimal reasoning.<sup>8</sup>  
317 This may be particularly true in first opinion practice where students are exposed  
318 to commonly presenting clinical cases frequently in their 'extra-mural studies'  
319 allowing them to practise type I thinking. However, if they consider this type I  
320 thinking as inappropriate, or are told that it is, this will lead to confusion and  
321 impaired reasoning. This is supported by a study of veterinary undergraduates  
322 who reported confidence in their clinical reasoning abilities but a deficit in their  
323 abilities was recognised by those starting their first job.<sup>14</sup>

324

325 The pragmatic aspect of clinical reasoning was emphasized by some clinicians in  
326 this study, with a recognition that in a primary care setting definitive diagnosis  
327 and 'gold standard' treatment may not always be possible, but that clinical  
328 reasoning will aid reaching the optimum solution at least in part through pattern  
329 recognition. This is recognised in human medicine, where it is stated that clinical  
330 reasoning can be used to delineate a problem even if a specific diagnosis is not  
331 reached.<sup>15</sup> This pragmatism is particularly useful in a first opinion setting when  
332 clients may not have sufficient funds for extensive testing, and equipment and  
333 personnel may be limited. Breaking down the process of clinical reasoning into  
334 diagnostic and therapeutic reasoning can be seen to be part of this approach and  
335 the requirement to achieve competence in both components is recognised in  
336 medical students.<sup>16</sup> The greater proportion of clinicians (compared to students)  
337 mentioning pragmatism in this study may reflect their greater experience of first  
338 opinion veterinary practice and also the desire of students to understand every  
339 detail of a case. It is recognised that medical students require specific training in  
340 the use of clinical reasoning in a pragmatic approach to cases.<sup>17</sup> It is interesting  
341 though, that although type I reasoning would fit well with this pragmatic clinical  
342 reasoning approach, it was not described by any of the clinicians or students. It is  
343 almost impossible that the experienced clinicians are not performing type I

344 reasoning, but whether they do not recognise that they are doing so, or that they  
345 feel it is a method they should not disclose is unclear.

346

347 When considering the factors that students and clinicians consider important in  
348 their discussions about consultations, the desire for, and the recognition of the  
349 value of, a student-centred learning experience was noted by both clinicians and  
350 students. Clinicians also describing the necessity of a caring attitude to the  
351 students giving them support and a 'safe' environment. This has long been  
352 recognised as desirable for effective teaching with establishment of a comfortable  
353 environment for learners and treating the students with respect being major  
354 strategies for improving bed-side learning in human hospitals.<sup>18</sup> Interestingly,  
355 student attitude was rarely mentioned as an important factor in making a  
356 successful interaction by either students or clinicians. It could be argued then, that  
357 although there is evidence of student autonomy and the use of appropriate  
358 teaching methods for adults considering the desire for student-centred teaching,  
359 there is also a traditional pedagogical attitude being supported by both clinicians  
360 and students, with students being considered 'child-like' in their requirement for  
361 protection without any responsibility for, or perhaps ability to control, the  
362 relationship. The theme of feedback could also be considered a more passive  
363 pedagogical state, with clinician control of questioning and comment rather than  
364 active student self-assessment or reflection. Similarly, the quantitative analysis  
365 revealed that judgement of the success of the interaction was more strongly  
366 correlated with PTPS than LTBS, suggesting clinician teaching behaviour was  
367 judged to be more important and/or better recognised.

368

369 There are limitations with this study. The use of the PTPS and LTBS required a  
370 grading scheme which, although defined, had elements of subjectivity to it.<sup>9</sup> The  
371 number of interactions and participants, particularly clinicians, was small. Also,  
372 the focus on peri-consultation interactions means many aspects of teaching  
373 clinical reasoning in this setting are not examined. Modelling of effective clinical  
374 reasoning by clinicians can aid student understanding of the process and thereby  
375 enhance their development of the skill. Thinking aloud has been described as an  
376 effective way for clinicians to model clinical reasoning<sup>19</sup> and has been suggested

377 to be particularly useful in a 'general practice' setting,<sup>20</sup> analogous to first opinion  
378 veterinary practice. It is likely such methods are in use (whether consciously as a  
379 teaching process or not) and others but were not captured by this investigation.

380

381 It is also likely that the understanding of clinical reasoning displayed by the  
382 participants in this study is fairly context specific, to both veterinary medicine and  
383 a university-based first opinion setting. A study of final year physiotherapy  
384 students found they perceived clinical reasoning as an instrumental process which  
385 included aspects of the logical and methodical theme noted here but other themes  
386 differed.<sup>21</sup> Although there are methodological differences between the studies it is  
387 likely these differences are due to physiotherapy students differing in their  
388 attitude to clinical reasoning and utilising it in a distinct clinical setting.

389

390 In conclusion, this analysis has described a range of themes which can be used to  
391 understand the perspectives of both clinicians and students in terms of their  
392 objectives for the time the student spends in first opinion practice and the peri-  
393 consultation interactions in this situation. Clinical reasoning is theorised by the  
394 participants in this study in a way that does not directly align with what is known  
395 about reasoning in first opinion practice, with a strong focus on an analytical  
396 approach, negating the non-analytical type I thinking aspect despite suggestions  
397 by some clinicians of the importance of pragmatism. This is suspected to be due to  
398 a misunderstanding of what it is 'desirable' to teach in this university first opinion  
399 setting (likely due to continued confusion of the nature of clinical reasoning)  
400 combined with a lack of clinician self-awareness of how they practice veterinary  
401 medicine. Displays of clinical reasoning are not encouraged with appropriate  
402 questioning techniques, despite clinicians stating that its development is one of  
403 their aims. A traditional pedagogical attitude prevails which means that the  
404 students are disempowered from furthering their clinical reasoning skills  
405 themselves. As in medical education, it cannot be assumed that students will  
406 automatically develop this skill, so this study adds to the evidence that clinical  
407 reasoning, particularly type I reasoning that is relevant to primary care, should be  
408 taught more explicitly to students in first opinion practice, alongside training of  
409 clinical teachers in this area.

410

411

412

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419 **Notes**

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495 Table 1. Preceptor thinking promotion scale (PTPS)

Score	Descriptor
1	The preceptor focuses on eliciting and clarifying the facts of the case and on testing the student's factual knowledge. The preceptor confirms or corrects the learner's knowledge and often gives advice or answers
2	In addition to eliciting the facts the preceptor asks questions the test or check the student's thinking, beyond just factual knowledge
3	The preceptor focuses on eliciting and helping the student clarify his or her thinking about case related uncertainties or difficulties. These interactions have a collegial tone; the preceptor may share his or her own uncertainties about the case or suggest that the learner and preceptor together look into a question or concern.

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Table 2. Learner thinking behaviour scale (LTBS)

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Score	Descriptor
1	The student focuses on giving the facts of the case, or on answering the preceptor's questions about the case or about his or her knowledge
2	The student explains his or her assessment or decisions, usually in response to a preceptor probe but sometimes self-initiated in the context of the case discussion; the learner may seek information or advice from the preceptor.
3	The student explores uncertainties or difficulties about the case with the preceptor; the focus is on 'thinking out loud' about problems, sorting them out. The learner may ask for information to help clarify his or her thinking or raise questions about ideas or issues that arise during the encounter; he or she may also rethink an earlier position as the discussion with the preceptor goes along.

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