CLINICAL REASONING: USING THE LEARNED SKILLS TO TEACH

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https://www.aliem.com/2014/02/expertise-clinical-decision-making/
Goals and Objectives

At the end of this workshop, faculty should be able to:

- Understand and apply the dual processing cognitive theory explaining clinical reasoning.

- Define illness scripts, problem presentation, and semantic qualifiers, and apply them to teaching clinical reasoning.

- Understand how (method) to teach clinical reasoning.
Introduction


- Clinical educators must diagnose a patient’s clinical problem AND the students’ knowledge and skills.

- To assess if students possess accurate and effective clinical diagnosing skills, teachers need to consider the following:
  - *What exactly is clinical reasoning?*
  - *How do doctors think?*
  - *How do students learn in the clinical setting?*
Exercise 1
10 minutes to:

1. Define clinical reasoning.

2. Describe how do you think doctors think.

3. Describe how do you think students learn clinical reasoning in a clinical learning environment.
Clinical Reasoning Defined

- There are many conceptualizations of clinical reasoning including multiple theoretical frameworks, research methodologies, and assessment approaches. (Young M, Thormas A., Lubarsky S et. al. Drawing Boundaries: The Difficulty in Defining Clinical Reasoning. Acad Med. 2018: Jan. 23)
  - To implement a SYSTEMATIC way of teaching, we will only discuss one theoretical framework (the most common).

- Clinical Reasoning Definitions:
  - “the cognitive operations allowing clinicians to observe, collect, and analyze information that ultimately leads to an action (i.e. diagnosis and therapy). Clinical reasoning refers to the steps up to and including establishing the diagnosis and treatment, which differs from clinical decision making where the emphasis is on the decision step (establishing the diagnosis and treatment).” (Holmboe E, Durning S. Assessing clinical reasoning: moving from in vitro to in vivo. Diagnosis 2014; 1(1): 111.)
  - A process in which clinicians collect, process, and interpret patient information to develop an action plan. (Department of Internal Medicine, Carver College of Medicine. Retrieves on March 3, 2018 from https://medicine.uiowa.edu/internalmedicine/education/master-clinician-program/information-students/clinical-and-diagnostic-reasoning)
  - “Clinical reasoning is a complex cognitive process that involves data gathering, hypothesis generation, hypothesis testing and refinement, the development of a differential diagnosis, the selection of a working diagnosis, and the implementation of a management plan.” (Weinstein A, Gupta S, Pinto-Powel R, et.al. Diagnosing and Remediating Clinical Reasoning Difficulties: A Faculty Development Workshop. MedEdPORTAL. 2017;13:10650.)
How do doctors think?

“Expert clinicians *unconsciously* run through checklists, leap past details and take short cuts to reach correct diagnosis”. (Gigante J. Teaching Clinical Reasoning Skills to Help your Learners “Get” the Diagnosis. *Pediat Therapeut.* 2012; 3(4).)

Expert clinicians store and recall knowledge as **illness scripts** (diseases, conditions or syndromes) which are directly linked to problem representations which trigger clinical memory (stored knowledge) which is then accessible for reasoning. (Bowen J. Educational Strategies to Promote Clinical Diagnostic Reasoning. *N Engl J Med.* 2006; 355:2217-25)

Another way of explaining how doctors think:

- **Exhaustive method**
  - Gather every bit of data possible, don’t miss a thing! Then try to come up with a diagnosis.

- **Hypothesis generation**
  - Propose an explanatory hypothesis- see if it “fits” the story. Revise as you go along.

- **Pattern recognition**
  - Know it when you see it- you’ve seen it before

- **In reality- clinicians use a combination of ALL these methods that involve System 1 and System 2 thinking**

What is an illness script?

- An organized mental summary or construct that clinicians use to create clinical memory.
- They are based on experiential knowledge about diseases and conditions.
- Illness scripts structure: **predisposing condition, pathophysiologic insult, and clinical consequences.**
  - Epidemiology
  - Time course
  - Pathophysiology
  - Salient symptoms and signs
  - (Diagnostics)
  - (Treatment)


Expert Organization of Information
Illness script

Epidemiology: who gets it?
- Demographics (Age, Gender and Race or Ethnicity).
- Risk Factors: Other Conditions
- Exposers

Temporal Course: How does this disease present with respect to time?
- Duration of Prodrome or Symptoms: Hyperacute, Acute, Subacute, Chronic
- Pattern of Prodrome or Symptoms: Constant (Stable or worsening), Episodic (Waxing and waning, Biphasic or Intermen)

Pathophysiology: What are the biomedical causes of this disease?
- What are the known derangements in: Anatomy, Physiology, Immunology, Biochemical pathways, Genetics, and Metabolomics.
- What are known environmental contributors: Microbiology, Toxins, and Pharmacology.

Clinical presentation (Syndrome Statement)
- Key and Differentiating Features ± MUST HAVE & REJECTING Features.

https://www.slideshare.net/MuhammedElhadyMuhamm/facilitation-of-clinical-reasoning-during-bedside-teaching-workshop-for-clinical-preceptors
They represent the clinicians knowledge of a particular disease and may be short or long, detailed or summarized, may include a mental representation of a specific patient, depending on the clinician’s experience.

Experts develop their illness scripts by:

- Mentally storing the features or characteristics of a disease and the probability of them being present, therefore they can estimate the likelihood of a diagnosis when a feature or characteristic is present or absent.

- Emphasizing (in their mental store) distinguishing characteristics (defining and discriminating clinical features) called anchor points, that alter the likelihood of a diagnosis and helps differentiate it from other diagnosis.

- Develops a list of disease mimickers or differentials.

Are illness scripts enough for every clinical case?

Cognitive Theories of Clinical Reasoning

- System 1- intuitive (non-analytical), fast, used by experts, based on pattern recognition.

- System 2- analytical, rational, slower, deliberate, reliable and focuses on hypothetical-deductive reasoning.
  - For complex cases
  - Ill defined cases
  - Unusual clinical findings
  - Little experience with case

- When System 2 overrides System 1- Rational Override.

- When System 1 overrides System 2- dysrational override
The activation of one or the other system depends on prior experience with a clinical presentation and if the clinician has an illness script, for that specific diagnosis, stored in memory.

In reality, both processes are used simultaneously and clinicians oscillate between the two with all cases (or at least they should).

Expert clinicians arrive quickly to a diagnosis from activation of System 1 and then, to avoid mistakes, they check this diagnosis using System 2.

It seems easy enough, but it is not:
- *The cycle of clinical reasoning is an iterative process that never ends.*
- *It is complex to learn and harder to teach.*
- *Thus, it is separated into specific steps, within a cycle, which are commonly known as “decision making”.*
Students Learning Process

■ Students organize medical knowledge according to how they are taught- systems based, case based, etc.

■ Recall is best when the question can be answered by the manner of how the curriculum is organized (this is ONE of the reasons why a systems based curriculum with lots of clinical correlations is better than a discipline based curriculum).

■ The clinical setting requires that the student constructs a story, based on the patient’s history and physical exam, and then compare it to their knowledge, thus the process may be slow.

■ Students need to make connections between clinical encounters and their knowledge to be able to later on retrieve this knowledge when presented with a clinical feature.

Why should we teach clinical reasoning?

- There really is not enough time to rely on time and experience so that students, by themselves and without any guidance and help, develop the knowledge and skills necessary to apply systems 1 and 2.

- Exposure to cases, especially difficult ones, helps students acquire and store knowledge in an illness script fashion which later they can retrieve.

- Clinical reasoning is essential to care for patients, to communicate with colleagues, and to educate others.
How can we teach students clinical reasoning?

- **Deliberate Practice**
  - Teachers need to develop teaching sessions where clinical reasoning is taught and practiced.
  - The process has to be simplified into the clinical decision making steps.
  - The goal is to achieve the ability to apply both systems (non-analytical and analytical) to a given clinical case, systematically.

  - Develop illness scripts.
  - Learn how to think analytically.

Teach students to systematically go through the **Clinical Reasoning Process**:

Key Elements of the Clinical Diagnostic Reasoning Process

- **Knowledge**
- **Context**
- **Experience**

- **Patient's story**
- **Data acquisition**
- **Accurate "problem representation"**
- **Generation of hypothesis**
- **Search for and selection of illness script**
- **Diagnosis**

Clinical Reasoning Process
Simplified Components

1. Gather information about the patient
2. Organize & interpret this information
3. Select the most likely diagnosis
4. Select a treatment plan
More specifically- what should we teach students?

- Become more refined at data gathering (history, physical exam, laboratories, imaging etc.).
- Correctly **organize** and **interpret** the data into an **accurate problem representation**.
- Correctly hypothesize the most probable diagnosis (“working diagnosis”) and the differential diagnosis.
  - Develop or refine **illness scripts for both, the working diagnosis and the differential diagnosis**.
- Decide on a course of action (management/treatment plan).
- Re-assess the patient, the diagnosis, and the outcomes of the actions taken.
Clinical Reasoning Process
From the **patient story** to the **diagnosis**

**Gather clinical information**
- History taking
- Physical exam
- Labs, studies

**Organize & interpret the information**
1. Risk factors, clinical findings (signs and symptoms)
   - **Problem representation**
2. List of possible diagnoses
   - **Differential diagnosis**
3. Narrow the list of possibilities
   - **Prioritized differential diagnosis**

**Select a diagnosis**
After testing your hypotheses, decide which one fits your patient the best.
- **Working diagnosis**
Data gathering includes:

- History
- Physical exam findings
- Results of laboratory testing.
- Results of imaging studies.

Case Example

An 80 year old male presents to the emergency department with chest pain.

• *What do you want to know and do?*
Common Questions in the History

- How sick is this patient?
- What are some of the causes of the chest pain I know?
- Which of these causes of chest pain is most likely in this case?
- Which of these are less likely but critical not to miss?
- Does he have risk factors for CAD?

Gather information about the patient
Physical Exam

- General appearance
- Vital signs
- Examination of heart and lungs.
- Examination of abdomen.
- Examination of extremities.

Gather information about the patient
Laboratories

- Need for testing based on pre-test probability

Gather information about the patient
Probability of Coronary Artery Disease

Once all these initial evaluations are complete, it is possible to estimate a patient’s probability of existing CAD before proceeding with stress testing or coronary angiography (Table 2).

Table 2: Pretest Probability of Coronary Artery Disease (CAD) by Age, Gender, and Symptom Status*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age, (years)†</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Typical or Definite Angina Pectoris</th>
<th>Atypical or Probable Angina Pectoris</th>
<th>Nonanginal Chest Pain</th>
<th>No Symptoms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Very low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>Very low</td>
<td>Very low</td>
<td>Very low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Very low</td>
<td>Very low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Very low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60-69</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Very low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


* High probability, >90%; intermediate, 10%—90%; low, <10%; very low, <5%.
† No data exist for patients aged >30 years or <69 years, but it can be assumed that the prevalence of CAD increases with age. In a few cases, patients at the extremes of each decade may have probabilities slightly outside the high or low range.

Stress Testing

Stress testing is another method for determining the presence of functional, clinically significant coronary artery disease. All stress testing techniques include...

...
Key features of organizing and interpreting the information

- Data synthesis & problem representation development
- Illness script scanning/refinement
  OR
- Illness script development
- Differential diagnosis formulation
- Awareness of cognitive biases

Organize & interpret this information
Key features of organizing and interpreting the information

- **Data synthesis & problem representation development**
- Illness script scanning/refinement
  OR
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- Differential diagnosis formulation
- Awareness of cognitive biases
Data synthesis & problem representation development

- Data synthesis:
  - *What are the key features from the history and PE?*
    - Tempo/course of the CC/HPI
    - Age, exposures, other risk factors
    - General appearance on exam
  - *What features of the patient’s history and PE findings are normal vs. abnormal?*
  - *Can the patient’s illness be characterized as a particular syndrome?*
  - *What are the key features from the history and PE?*
    - Tempo/course of the CC/HPI
    - Age, exposures, other risk factors
    - General appearance on exam

Organize & interpret this information
Case example

**History:**

80 year old with a 40 pack year history of cigarette smoking Describes acute onset of crushing chest pain associated with shortness of breath at rest.

The patient has a history of coronary artery disease with a prior MI and stent placement at age 74.

He has a family history of his dad with a MI at age 60.
Identifying Differentiating & Key Features

Clues or anchor points, that can help generate a differential diagnosis and distinguish between diseases with shared characteristics.

**Key Feature**
(unique to that disease)

**Syndrome**
(constellation of signs and symptoms that are common to several diseases)

**Differentiating Feature**
(unique to a subset of diseases)

Organize & interpret this information

Bowen, 2006
Organizing Knowledge and Information, Dr. Catherine Lucey
Data synthesis & Problem Representation development

- One sentence summary (summary)
- Highlights the defining features of the case.
- Is a summary of the clinician’s thoughts.
- Helps generate the differential diagnosis.
- Is the “one liner” statements that should be used during rounds, presentation, and patient notes to summarize patient cases.
- It is updated as the clinician gathers more data.
- It is how clinicians really communicate with one another.

Data synthesis & Problem Representation Development

■ Should answer three questions:
  - Who is the patient- demographics and risk factors.
  - What is the temporal pattern of the illness- length (hyperacute, acute, subacute, chronic) and tempo (stable, progressive, resolving, intermittent, waxing and waning).
  - What is the clinical syndrome- key signs and symptoms.

■ Should activate illness scripts so clinicians can compare and prioritize the diff dx.

■ Failure to generate an appropriate problem representation may result in a broad diff. dx. that is based on isolated findings.

Data synthesis & Problem Representation Development

- Problem representations are rarely used and need to be required deliberately so that learners understand how to develop them.

- As learners gain expertise, they refine the problem representations which makes it easier to develop and/or activate illness scripts.

Problem representation: constellation of noteworthy clinical findings (the "clinical picture")

Case Example
Problem Representation

In the clinical documentation, the problem representation is articulated as a summary statement.
Data synthesis & Problem Representation Development Summary Statement

■ Remember, a good problem representation and its summary statement, must answer:
  – Who is the patient- demographics and risk factors.
  – What is the temporal pattern of the illness- length (hyperacute, acute, subacute, chronic) and tempo (stable, progressive, resolving, intermittent, waxing and waning).
  – What is the clinical syndrome- key signs and symptoms.

■ It also MUST contain discriminating features and pertinent patient details that are converted into semantic qualifiers.
Semantic Qualifiers

- Semantic qualifiers are medical terminology.
- They are abstract representation of a case finding.
- They help clinicians compare and contrast findings to arrive to a diff. dx.
- Generally exist in divergent pairs.
  - *acute vs. chronic*
  - *sharp vs. dull*
  - *bilateral vs. unilateral*
  - *constant vs. intermittent*
  - *mild vs. severe*
  - *at rest vs. with activity*

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## Case example

### Key findings in our patient

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WITHOUT SEMANTIC QUALIFIERS</th>
<th>WITH SEMANTIC QUALIFIERS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CHEST PAIN</td>
<td><strong>ACUTE ONSET, SEVERE, CRUSHING CHEST PAIN</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOB</td>
<td>CHEST PAIN AT REST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HISTORY OF CORONARY ARTERY DISEASE</td>
<td><strong>ACUTELY SHORT OF BREATH AT REST</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAM HX OF MI, 40 PACK YEAR HX OF CIGARETTE SMOKING</td>
<td><strong>CHRONIC RISK FACTORS INCLUDE HX OF CAD + FAM HX OF EARLY MI, 40 PACK/YEAR OF CIGARETTES</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Organize & interpret this information.
80 year old man with history of coronary artery disease and previous stent, + family history of early myocardial infarction, and 40 pack year history of cigarette smoking presents with acute onset of severe crushing chest pain and shortness of breath at rest. On exam he appears ill and has bibasilar crackles and an S3 gallop.
Exercise 2

10 minutes to:

- Develop a summary statement for this case using semantic:

17 y/o female patient with a history of 1 ear infection who presents to the emergency room with a 3 day history of fever (40-41 degrees C) and abdominal pain. The pain was in the peri-umbilical region, dull and started as a 6/10. Now it is in the right lower quadrant and is 10/10 pain. She has vomited twice and has not eaten anything for the last 2 days.

Key features of organizing and interpreting the information

- Data synthesis & problem representation development
- Illness script scanning/refinement
- OR
- Illness script development
- Differential diagnosis formulation
- Awareness of cognitive biases
Illness Script Scanning

■ With a good problem representation, clinicians (including medical students) will unconsciously scan to see if they already have an illness script that bests match the patient presentation.

■ If there is an illness script then, they will use it to develop the diff. dx., the working dx. and a course of action (diagnosing/treatment).

Remember...
Illness Scripts

- Pathophysiology of this disease
- Symptoms, PE findings, lab findings typical of this disease
- Who gets it
- Typical time course of this disease

Organizing Knowledge and Information, Dr. Catherine Lucey
Illness Script of an MI:

**Epidemiology:** middle age and older, males > females, HTN, hyperlipidemia, +history of coronary artery disease, +cigarette smoking, +family history of early CAD.

**Pathophysiology:** impaired blood flow and hypoxia of myocardial tissue leading to cell death.

**Clinical Presentation:** chest pain, SOB, diaphoresis, syncope/arrhythmia, signs of heart failure on exam.

**Time course:** acute onset chest pain with gradual worsening; exertional.
Illness Script & Differential Diagnosis Development

- Lack of experience equals lack of a robust number/content of illness scripts.

- With a good problem representation, clinicians and medical students can develop/refine illness scripts to include in their working memory.

- Illness script development and thus, pattern recognition, should be based on the knowledge of the typical presentation of a problem and as many variations as possible (atypical presentations).
  - *Thus the activation or creation of illness scripts follows a hypothesis driven method.*

- Because a patient presentation may be similar in one or more diagnosis, the process of developing illness scripts includes developing a working dx and a diff. dx.
The diagnosis considered *most likely* at a given point in the data gathering process.

*Can change at any point* if new clinical information alters the differential diagnosis accordingly (e.g., new sx's, PE findings, or study results inconsistent with previous working diagnosis).
Illness Script & Differential Diagnosis Development

- Comparing and contrasting the most probable (working) diagnosis and its differential, is the best way, not only to teach clinical reasoning, but also to develop robust illness scripts.

- The comparison should include:
  - Predisposing conditions
  - Pathophysiologic insult
  - Clinical consequences (signs, and symptoms)
Exercise 3
10 minutes to:

- Compare illness scripts for the most likely diagnosis (working diagnosis) and at least two differential diagnosis for this case.

17 y/o female patient with a history of 1 ear infection who presents to the emergency room with a 3 day history of fever (40-41 degrees C) and abdominal pain. The pain was in the peri-umbilical region, dull and started as a 6/10. Now it is in the right lower quadrant and is 10/10 pain. She has vomited twice and has not eaten anything for the last 2 days.

Key features of organizing and interpreting the information

- Data synthesis & problem representation development
- Illness script scanning/refinement
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- Differential diagnosis formulation
- **Awareness of cognitive biases**
Common cognitive biases

- **Anchoring bias**
  - Tendency to latch on to first symptom or finding, and failing to adjust despite later information that does not fit.
  - e.g., Pulmonary embolism can cause chest pain and shortness of breath, so it must be that. Not sure why the fever of 102.

- **Availability bias**
  - Tendency to have a recent case influence your judgment
  - e.g., Just saw a case of pneumothorax present just like this, so this patient likely has a pneumothorax.

- **Ascertainment /Stereotype bias**
  - Tendency to let a stereotype explain the symptom
  - e.g., People who smoke get pneumonia, so that’s probably the cause of this patient’s symptoms.

Common cognitive biases

- **Representativeness**
  - Tendency to focus on the prototypical of a disease. Data similar to this category are overemphasized and atypical variants may be overlooked or missed.

- **Outcome**:
  - Tendency to favor a diagnosis associated with effective treatment options or a favorable outcome.

- **Overconfidence**:
  - Tendency to overestimate one’s competence. Decisions are based more on opinion than a carefully collected evidence.

- **Confirmation**:
  - Tendency to look only for those cues that confirm a diagnosis rather than those that disconfirm it.

Cognitive biases- awareness and prevention

Metacognition: thinking about your own thinking

“It distinguishes...the thinking of experts from that of nonexperts.” (Croskerry 2003)
Cognitive biases - awareness and prevention

- Stop and think:
  - What else could this be?
  - Does anything not fit in this story?
  - Could more than one thing be happening with this patient?
Steps for Teaching Clinical Reasoning

1. Student present the data about the patient (draft 1 of the problem presentation).
2. Discuss relevant semantic qualifiers.
3. Re-construct the problem presentation as a summary statement using semantic qualifiers.
4. Hypothesis, based on knowledge and prior illness scripts, most probable diagnosis (working diagnosis).
5. Compare (predisposing conditions, pathophysiologic insult and clinical consequences) the working diagnosis and at least X diff. dx.
6. Select the illness script that best matches the patient’s presentation.
7. Evaluate for cognitive biases.
8. Confirm the working diagnosis.
9. Develop a plan.
10. Re-assess patient and go through the process again.

Goals and Objectives

- At the end of this workshops, faculty should be able to:
  
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  - Understand how (method) to teach clinical reasoning.
Acknowledgements

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