

International consensus statement on the assessment of interprofessional learning outcomes.

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Title:**International consensus statement on the assessment of interprofessional learning outcomes**

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IPL assessment consensus statement

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Abstract

Regulatory frameworks around the world mandate that health and social care professional education programmes graduate practitioners who have the competence and capability to practice effectively in interprofessional collaborative teams. Academic institutions are responding by offering interprofessional education (IPE); however, there is as yet no consensus regarding optimal strategies for the assessment of interprofessional learning (IPL).

The Program Committee for the 17th Ottawa Conference in Perth, Australia in March, 2016, invited IPE champions to debate and discuss the current status of the assessment of IPL. A draft statement from this workshop was further discussed at the global All Together Better Health VIII conference in Oxford, UK in September, 2016. The outcomes of these deliberations and a final round of electronic consultation informed the work of a core group of international IPE leaders to develop this document.

The consensus statement we present here is the result of the synthesised views of experts and global colleagues. It outlines the challenges and difficulties but endorses a set of desired learning outcome categories and methods of assessment that can be adapted to individual contexts and resources. The points of consensus focus on pre-qualification (pre-licensure) health professional students but may be transferable into post-qualification arenas.

Introduction

Interprofessional education (IPE) occurs when ‘two or more professions learn with, from and about each other to improve collaboration and the quality of care’ (CAIPE 2002). This process aims to ensure that health professional students and practitioners have the capabilities required for effective collaborative interprofessional practice (IPP), which we have chosen to define as:

health and community service professionals working together, using complementary knowledge and skills, to provide care to patients, clients and communities, based on trust, respect and an understanding of each other’s expertise (adapted from Canadian Medical Association 2007, p. 3).

In the context of health and social care service delivery globally, evidence continues to emerge in support of IPP achieved through IPE. The World Health Organization (2010) highlighted this evidence within a *Framework for Action on Interprofessional Education & Collaborative Practice* (WHO, 2010). This document cites drivers for collaborative care models including: health care provider shortages; poor patient safety records; duplication of services; escalating costs; and limited access to the right services at the right time at the right location. It also identifies many possible benefits from IPP such as: reduction in lengths of hospital stay; improvements in quality of life for patients, clients and their families; improved access to care; and enhanced patient and client safety. Further, evidence suggests that highly collaborative teams experience reduced tensions and conflict, leading to improved job satisfaction, as well as enhanced recruitment and retention of health care providers (Zwarenstein et al 2009; Health Force Ontario 2010; Reeves et al 2013). Proponents of IPP assert that the needs of many patients

1
2
3 and clients are beyond the expertise of any single health care provider and true patient- or client-
4
5 centred service requires IPP (Freeth 2001; Bridges et al 2011; van Dongen 2016).
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9 Academic institutions worldwide have responded to the growing emphasis on IPP by embedding
10 IPE in the curricula of health and human service professional programmes (see for example:
11
12 Herbert 2005; Barr & Ross 2006; Boyce et al 2009; WHO 2010; Rogers 2011; Gilbert 2014;
13
14 Paterno & Opina-Tan 2014; Wilhelmsson et al 2009; Anderson et al 2015; Grymonpre 2016).
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16
17 Integration of IPE in pre-licensure programmes has been further driven by reports and initiatives
18
19 across a range of health and human service programmes. From the US, the *Lancet Report*
20
21 identified IPE as a key factor in transforming medical, nursing and public health education in the
22
23 21st century (Frenk et al 2010). One of ten recommendations in *The Future of Medical Education*
24
25 *in Canada* report relates to advancing inter- and intra-professional practice (Association of
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27 Faculties of Medicine of Canada 2015).
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35 In recent years, drivers have also included professional regulatory authorities, who seek
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37 integration of IPE standards into the accreditation of health and social care programmes.
38
39 Accreditation is a complex process that assesses a programme's compliance with national
40
41 professional standards and serves as an incentive for change (Curran et al 2005). As such,
42
43 accreditation strongly influences the quality and content of education programmes for health
44
45 professionals (Gelmon et al 1999; Kassebaum 1992; Kassebaum & Cohen 2000; Schwarz 1992;
46
47 Frenk et al 2010). In Canada (CIHC 2016) and, in relation only to the post-licensure arena, in the
48
49 United States (Joint Accreditation 2013) accreditation organisations for different professions
50
51 have recently begun to collaborate to create unified processes that promote IPE. These
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3 developments offer models for closer collaboration between professional accreditation bodies to
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5 this end.
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9 In addition to publication of the WHO *Framework for Action*, 2010 saw the promulgation of the
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11 *Sydney Interprofessional Declaration*, a consensus communiqué from the fifth global All
12
13 Together Better Health Conference in Australia. The declaration asserted, in Article 1, that ‘...all
14
15 users of health and human services shall be entitled to fully integrated, interprofessional
16
17 collaborative health and human services’ and went on in Article 3 to place an onus on providers
18
19 of pre-licensure health professional education, as follows:
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24
25 *Health worker education and training prior to practice shall contain*
26
27 *significant core elements ... of interprofessional education. These ... shall*
28
29 *contain practical experiences ... [and] ... be formally assessed.* (All Together
30
31 Better Health 5 International Conference participants 2010, p. 1)
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35

36 In the six years since the *Sydney Declaration*, there has been much activity around the definition
37
38 of interprofessional learning (IPL) outcomes (Thistlethwaite et al 2014), but so far no global
39
40 consensus has emerged about the range of outcomes to be assessed and how that assessment
41
42 should be undertaken.
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47 A recent review of pre-qualification IPE evaluations highlighted that, of the ninety studies
48
49 included, only five reported on assessment of student knowledge via a written test and only four
50
51 reported on an assessment of student performance through observation or interviews
52
53 (Thistlethwaite et al 2015). An audit of IPE at Australian higher education institutions (The
54
55 Interprofessional Curriculum Renewal Consortium 2013) found that, of 70 activities, 59% were
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3 assessed, with the most common assessment methods being required attendance, essays and
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5 presentations.
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9 Consensus about assessment processes and procedures is needed to satisfy academic, professional
10 and regulatory bodies. However, the formation of consensus needs to recognise the tensions
11 between the pressures on faculty members to appease regulators and produce the types of
12 practitioners required by service organisations, on the one hand, while considering the needs of
13 patients and clients for person-centred, effective and efficient high quality care, on the other (see
14 Figure 1).
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25 INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE
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29 At the same time, while most authors agree that IPE is important, there is little agreement on how
30 to compile a curriculum theme throughout pre-registration education, aligned with learning
31 outcomes, that includes assessment of IPL. Reeves (2012, p.254) further points out that ‘we are
32 not clear about how to robustly measure (assess) the many different statements which make up
33 the interprofessional competency’. This is partly because, in health professional education
34 broadly, we are focussed on personal accountability for registration purposes, rather than team
35 accountability and responsibility. In addition, there remains considerable uncertainty as to how
36 to describe fully what the World Health Organization terms, ‘collaborative practice-ready’ (WHO
37 2010, p.7) learners at the pre-registration and various post-qualified levels of a professional
38 career trajectory.
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3 This consensus statement aims to crystallise current global understandings of the assessment of
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5 IPL, supported by evidence and expert opinion, as well as to offer clarity concerning minimum
6
7 standards, while highlighting the remaining research questions that require action.
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9

10 11 **Methods**

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13
14 In response to an invitation by the Program Committee for the 17th international Ottawa
15
16 Conference on the Assessment of Competence in Medicine and the Healthcare Professions, held
17
18 in Perth, Australia in March 2016, we began a collaborative process with the aim of reaching a
19
20 global consensus on the key questions related to the assessment of interprofessional learning
21
22 outcomes.
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27
28 Prior to the conference, we formed a core writing group through invitations to IPE scholars from
29
30 Europe, North America, Asia and Australia; as well as a range of professions including nursing,
31
32 medicine, pharmacy, occupational therapy, and health professional education. All had experience
33
34 of aligning IPE within health and social care curricula. The group scoped the key issues to
35
36 enable a full and open debate, using an interactive workshop design, at the Ottawa Conference
37
38 (first round of consultation). We then developed a draft consensus statement, which guided
39
40 further discussion in a pre-conference workshop at the eight international All Together Better
41
42 Health conference, held in Oxford, UK in September 2016 (second round of consultation).
43
44 Workshop participants from around the world, including developed and resource constrained
45
46 settings, offered their perspectives. They discussed key questions related to the assessment of
47
48 interprofessional learning outcomes. Both sessions were audio recorded and a note taker
49
50 recorded key points of feedback. The writing group then synthesised all comments and feedback
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60 to develop revised points of consensus, that were circulated to all participants from both

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3 workshops, including key scholars from less well-resourced settings, for comment (third and final
4
5 round of consultation). We undertook a further revision, informed by input received, to produce
6
7 the final consensus statement presented here.
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9

10
11 Prior to the conference workshops, the writing team decided to limit the scope of this consensus
12
13 statement to the education of health and social care students prior to first registration or licensure.
14
15 We made this decision in order to render the task of developing the statement manageable within
16
17 the time and resources available, as well as to respond directly to the entreaty of Article 3 of the
18
19 *Sydney Interprofessional Declaration*. We believe that the statement also has important
20
21 implications for the post-registration and continuing professional development domains and plan
22
23 to address these more directly in an extension of the statement to be developed in the future. We
24
25 also made the decision to adopt a view of the concept of ‘interprofessional’ that encompasses all
26
27 persons who contribute to the health and wellbeing of a patient, client or community, including
28
29 those who in some jurisdictions may not be considered ‘professionals’, as well as workers in
30
31 related occupations such as teachers and police officers.
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39 The writing team was acutely aware that health and education systems differ across the world.
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41 Through the consultations we deliberately sought comment on the interpretation and
42
43 implementation of the statement in diverse cultural settings but we recognise that further
44
45 refinement is likely to be necessary as educators attempt to make use of it around the globe. This
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47 may be particularly so in societies where hierarchical structures are culturally valued. With
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49 these concerns in mind we invite feedback from readers of this paper that may contribute to
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51 future revisions.
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Consensus Themes

Seventy-five contributors from 15 countries shared their views, which were synthesised by the global writing team.

The consensus themes fell under three overarching categories, some with subcategories, as follows:

- Context:
 - i) The purposes of the assessment of interprofessional learning outcomes
 - ii) How assessment should be applied over the course of a learning programme
- The assessment journey of teacher and student:
 - i) What should be assessed
 - ii) How to assess
 - iii) How feedback to enhance further learning should best be provided
- Gaps in the evidence base requiring further scholarly enquiry.

Context

i) The purposes of interprofessional assessment

As Gilbert (2005) has argued, one of the most significant barriers to the effectiveness of IPE is the perception on the part of some students and educators that it is a peripheral ‘add-on’, rather than ‘an integral and necessary component in the education of health and human service professionals, regardless of discipline’ (p.101). Oandasan and Reeves (2005) suggest that ‘students sometimes feel that interprofessional learning is not as important as their profession

1
2
3 specific experiences' (p.26). For this reason, many see assessment as having a critical role in
4
5 conveying messages to stakeholders (including licensing bodies, administrators, educators,
6
7 patients, clients and the general community, as well as learners themselves) concerning the
8
9 significance of interprofessional learning. Boud (2000) defined assessment as:

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11
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13
14 *an act of communication about what we value. It transmits not only our views*
15
16 *about what is important for our subject, but is an act of cultural*
17
18 *communication transmitting what the collective 'we' intends (p160).*
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23 As Muijtjens and colleagues observed in 1998, 'tests and examinations drive student learning' (p.
24
25 81) and while, like most truisms, this is an over-simplification of reality (McLachlan 2006), there
26
27 is no doubt that the inclusion of assessment in an interprofessional programme promotes
28
29 engagement on the part of students who may otherwise tend to pay more attention to the
30
31 acquisition of uniprofessional learning.
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35
36 There has never been a more urgent period in the history of healthcare for promotion of patient
37
38 and client safety (Dixon-Woods 2010), underlining the importance of effective assessment of IPL
39
40 to ensure that graduating practitioners are able to practise collaboratively and work effectively –
41
42 and safely – in teams (Ladden et al 2006).
43
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46
47 There is also evidence that patients and clients want professionals to communicate effectively and
48
49 many become involved in the development and delivery of interprofessional learning because of
50
51 these aspirations (Manidis et al 2009; Anderson et al 2011). This effect is also recognised by
52
53 interprofessional educators (Carlisle et al 2004). Moreover, there is anecdotal evidence that
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55 people from indigenous communities in different parts of the world, in particular, frequently
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2
3 complain that health care workers don't, as Carlisle's group (2004) put it, 'talk to each other' (p.
4
5 545). These expectations begin to articulate IPL as part of a 'social contract' between the health
6
7 care professions and the citizens they serve (Cruess & Cruess, 2008).
8
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10
11 There are two key components to the purpose of assessment: it both assesses learning and also in
12
13 itself drives learning (Thistlethwaite 2015). As Imanipouri & Jalili (2016) have recently
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15 observed:
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20 *Viewing assessment as a method for improvement and learning instead of*
21
22 *viewing it as only a tool for accountability is the most important change*
23
24 *that [has] occurred in thinking about assessment (p. 47).*
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28
29 Frequently, reference is made to assessment as either 'summative' or 'formative', with calls for
30
31 IPE to address both of these areas (Barr et al 2016). Summative assessment is the endpoint of a
32
33 particular course, programme or university degree and compares a learner's achievement through
34
35 marks or grades with a previously-set standard or benchmark. Summative assessment aims to
36
37 answer the questions: 'has the learner shown evidence of adequate learning?' and 'has the learner
38
39 met the required standard?' Formative assessment, in contrast, is a process that provides
40
41 information both to learners and to educators about the progress of each learner, in order to
42
43 identify areas of strength or weakness. Thus, formative assessment is about 'feedback' and
44
45 'dialogue' between learner and teacher. Ideally all summative assessment should have a
46
47 formative component, but this is often missing from high stakes examinations that result solely in
48
49 a mark or a pass/fail decision. Summative assessment assesses learning (assessment *of* learning)
50
51 while formative assessment supports and enhances learning (assessment *for* learning). Formative
52
53 assessment of skills-based activities and complex tasks such as teamwork should involve frequent
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3 observation with constructive and timely feedback. When done well, therefore, it is time and
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5 resource intensive.
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9 Considerations of the purpose of assessment should include the identification of standards against
10
11 which the performance of learners can be judged. Over the last two decades, behaviourist,
12
13 outcomes-focused curricula in health care have turned to the use of competence-based
14
15 assessments (Frank et al 2010) and there has been a plethora of papers that both support and
16
17 refute this approach (see, for example, van der Vleuten & Schuwirth 2005; Lurie 2012). The use
18
19 of ‘a competence’ offers a clear structure for assessment. Competence is aligned to what Miller
20
21 (1990) outlined as a combination of knowledge with subsequent ability to practise. In particular,
22
23 it is an amalgamation of knowledge and understanding in the cognitive domain (‘Knows’ and
24
25 ‘Knows How’), with performance in the psychomotor domain (in ‘Shows How’) and action
26
27 (‘Does’, which combines all three of Bloom’s domains [Bloom 1956]). Barr (1996) has proposed
28
29 that the competence-based approach is compelling, arguing that:
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37 *[c]ompetency-based learning will have to be embraced if interprofessional*
38 *education is to secure its place in emerging models of professional and*
39 *vocational education. Only then will interprofessional education be ready to*
40 *subject its outcomes to critical reviews in terms not only of collaborative*
41 *attitudes but also collaborative behaviour (p. 350).*
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50 However, as Fraser and Greenhalgh (2001) argued a decade and a half ago, the concept of
51
52 competence (‘what individuals know or are able to do in terms of knowledge, skills, attitude’
53
54 [p.799]) is insufficient to describe the qualities necessary for effective practice in a complex
55
56 health environment. They suggested ‘capability’ as a higher level outcome that encompassed the
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3 elements of competence as well as ‘the ability to adapt to change, generate new knowledge, and
4 continuously improve performance’ (p. 799). Wilson and Holt (2001) reached similar
5
6 conclusions at about the same time.
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10
11 Other conceptual descriptors for the outcomes of health professional (including interprofessional)
12 education include entrustable professional activities (ten Cate et al 2010) and threshold learning
13 outcomes (O’Keefe 2014; Rogers 2011), while Lurie (2012) has suggested that, because
14
15 interprofessionalism is, like many others, mainly a social competence, it may be more appropriate
16
17 to abandon reductionist approaches to measurement altogether and rather embrace complexity in
18
19 relation to ‘patterns of human performance in the clinical setting’ (p. 56).
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28 **Points of consensus on the purposes of the assessment of interprofessional outcomes**

- 29
- 30 • To raise the value of the learning for all stakeholders and promote learner engagement
 - 31 • To verify the capabilities for safe effective practice
 - 32 • To meet the needs and expectations of patients, clients and communities, as well as
33 carers and families, for effective cooperation and interprofessional communication
34 between health and social care workers
 - 35 • To measure what learning has taken place and support further learning
 - 36 • To offer insights into the achievement of a minimal standard using frameworks relating
37 to competence or capability
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47 *ii) How assessment should be applied over the course of a programme*

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49 Best practice in assessment requires curriculum alignment, that is, it must assess the defined
50 learning outcomes of the educational programme (Biggs & Tang 2007). In addition, educators
51
52 need to decide what should be assessed and when, in relation to the learning opportunities and
53
54 learning activities in place to help students to meet the required outcomes. At the current time in
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3 some institutions, not all health professional and social care students have sufficient experiences
4
5 and relevant exposure to IPL. Assessment, therefore, cannot be acceptable or feasible until there
6
7 is equity of opportunity in learning – though all students do not need to have exactly the same
8
9 experiences. This requires a learning trajectory with early theoretical learning, as well as
10
11 learning activities – simulated or clinical – where team working and collaborative practice can be
12
13 observed, practised and potentially assessed (Anderson et al 2015). Feedback, formative and
14
15 summative assessments need to be made clear to students from the outset of their programmes.
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21 The introduction of a new method of assessment requires additional faculty development and
22
23 appropriate resources to ensure equity across all health professions. As Steinert (2005) put it:
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26
27 *Faculty development can play a unique role in promoting IPE by addressing*
28
29 *some of the barriers ... that exist at both the individual and the*
30
31 *organizational level, and by providing individuals with the knowledge and*
32
33 *skills needed to design and facilitate IPE (p. 60).*
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38
39 Action will be needed in many settings to ensure that faculty, clinical supervisors and preceptors
40
41 gain the capacity to assess students effectively in relation to interprofessional learning outcomes.
42

43
44 Reeves and colleagues (2016) have argued that IPE facilitation is influenced by contextual
45
46 characteristics such as resources and technology, facilitator experience such as preparation and
47
48 support, as well as facilitator strategies such as reflection and feedback.
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51
52 Faculty development for assessors remains under researched, both within uniprofessional and
53
54 interprofessional education as outlined in the final section of this statement.
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Points of consensus on how assessment should be applied over the course of a programme

- Formative and summative assessment should be critical elements within a programmatic approach to interprofessional education, where appropriate assessments are utilised to promote learning and to measure learning outcomes of increasing complexity across programmes
- The availability of appropriate interprofessional learning opportunities is a critical prerequisite to the fair assessment of interprofessional capabilities
- Appropriate developmental opportunities for educators and assessors are an inherent requirement to the effective implementation of interprofessional assessment processes.

The assessment journey for the learner and teacher*i) What to assess*

Questions around the desired outcomes of IPE and the language through which these should be expressed were discussed extensively during the consensus process. A large number of frameworks – utilising a range of descriptors, such as competencies, capabilities (as discussed above) and various species of learning outcomes – already exists (see a review by Thistlethwaite et al 2014, and also Rogers 2011, UCSF 2014, Finnemann et al 2016, Haruta et al 2016, Interprofessional Education Collaborative 2016).

[INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE]

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3 After due consideration, the writing team has decided that there would be little value in
4 attempting to reach consensus on either the outcome concept to be used to describe these desired
5 characteristics or their detail. Rather, we have elected to present a thematic summary of the
6 broad areas that the frameworks encompass and would encourage educators to ensure that they
7 consider each of these areas when drawing from the wide array of available 'menus' (including
8 individual profession- and jurisdiction-specific accreditation standards), to formulate the intended
9 outcomes of their own planned interprofessional learning programmes.
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21 As yet there is no empirical evidence to determine which areas of outcome need to be assessed
22 and achieved in order to ensure that graduates can provide effective collaborative care that
23 benefits patients, clients and communities, at each stage of training. There is, however,
24 considerable consistency between the core domains of all the available interprofessional
25 frameworks. The four most prominent of these were reviewed and compared by Thistlethwaite
26 and colleagues (2014) and are summarised in Table 1. On the basis of this work and by
27 consensus, the following are recommended as key thematic areas to be assessed:
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- 39 1. *Role understanding*: This area includes outcomes that confirm an understanding of the
40 roles, responsibilities, values and contributions of the health professions that the learner is
41 most likely to encounter and work with in their future practice, including the profession
42 that they are seeking to enter themselves. This is a concept that the first author has
43 dubbed 'health professions literacy', though some members of the consensus process
44 thought that the full original description of this capability (see Teodorczuk 2016) implied
45 a depth of understanding that was unlikely to be fully achieved, particularly in pre-
46 registration health professional programmes.
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3 2. *Interprofessional communication*: This theme includes outcomes that confirm an ability
4
5 to communicate effectively and respectfully with colleagues in other professions. It
6
7 encompasses the importance of listening, negotiation, conflict management and
8
9 resolution, as well as exploring and respecting values (though not necessarily agreeing
10
11 with them all).
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15
16 3. *Interprofessional values*: This theme includes outcomes related to the incorporation into
17
18 the learner's world-view of values consistent with effective IPP. These include
19
20 collegiality, respect for persons, a critical view of established hierarchy, client- and
21
22 patient-centredness, appreciation of diversity, honesty, integrity and reliability, as well as
23
24 a commitment to interprofessional continuing education across their professional life after
25
26 graduation. We recognise that such outcomes may be difficult to measure directly –
27
28 though some methods do exist (see 'How to assess' below) – and will often be assessed
29
30 indirectly through their impact on observable behaviours.
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36 4. *Coordination and collaborative decision-making*: This theme includes outcomes related
37
38 to the ability to coordinate one's professional activities collaboratively with colleagues, as
39
40 well as with patients, clients, carers, families and communities, in order to synthesise
41
42 diverse opinion and optimise care and services provided. It incorporates advocacy,
43
44 leadership and followership capabilities.
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50 5. *Reflexivity*: Outcomes in this area concern acquisition of the ability to monitor and reflect
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52 upon the effectiveness of interprofessional collaborations involving one's self and others,
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54 throughout one's career, with the aim of continuous improvement.
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3 6. *Teamwork*: IPP is not solely about teamwork, in the traditional sense of a bounded co-
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5 located group of professionals who identify as a team, meet regularly and reflect on
6
7 performance. According to Hammick and colleagues (2009), a team is:
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9

10
11 *a small number of people with complementary skills, who are committed to a*
12
13 *common purpose, performance, goals and approach, for which they are*
14
15 *mutually accountable (p. 39).*
16
17

18
19 However, this theme does focus on what teams are and how they function within
20
21 healthcare; what makes for an effective collaborative team; barriers to teamwork;
22
23 accountability; team dynamics and power relationships.
24
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32 **Points of consensus on what to assess**

- 33
34 • Assessment of interprofessional learning should include outcomes in the following
35
36 six domains: role understanding; interprofessional communication;
37
38 interprofessional values; coordination and collaborative decision-making;
39
40 reflexivity; and teamwork
41
42
43
44
45

46
47 *ii) How to assess*
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49

50 The ways we assess are always situated and contextualised. Traditional assessment
51
52 methodologies need to be adapted and modified creatively by educators in order to be fit-for-
53
54 purpose in the interprofessional setting, but, as with assessment in the health professions in
55
56 general, interprofessional assessment must: measure what was intended; offer a high pay-off so
57
58
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60

1
2
3 that students value formative feedback in preparation for summative outcomes; and be valid,
4
5 reliable and equitable. Above all it must be feasible, affordable and acceptable for all
6
7 stakeholders, as well as acknowledging the sensitivity of all things interprofessional while
8
9 encouraging learning and not detracting from the enjoyment of learning with others.
10
11

12
13
14 There was strong agreement that a combination of assessments is required that looks to both the
15
16 individual learners and their performance within a group or team setting.
17
18

19
20 The assessment of teamwork remains an important challenge. Assessment of health
21
22 professionals and students for certification purposes is predominantly the assessment of
23
24 individuals, which is appropriate in most situations. However, while IPE does not focus solely
25
26 on teamwork, teamwork competencies related to interprofessional practice are important items
27
28 for assessment. Assessment of teamwork and collaborative practice logically should involve an
29
30 assessment of the whole team as well as individual performance contributing to teamwork and
31
32 collaboration. While the ability to work in a team is enhanced by a theoretical knowledge of
33
34 teamwork and team processes in general, and the roles and responsibilities of the relevant health
35
36 professions specifically, assessment of teamwork in health and social care should ideally be
37
38 undertaken through observation of students working in teams and carrying out teamwork tasks.
39
40 In the early stages of an educational programme, these tasks may be non-clinical projects, but in
41
42 the later stages they should be clinically relevant, involving authentic simulation and, ideally,
43
44 tasks in real clinical settings (work-based assessment).
45
46
47
48
49
50

51
52 We acknowledge that it is impossible to provide all learners with exactly the same experiences
53
54 during their programmes. Health and social care students work in different types of
55
56 interprofessional teams for varying time periods, making observation of their teamwork
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 challenging. A team may be formed specifically for the purpose of assessment, for example for a
4
5 simulation or an observed structured clinical examination (OSCE). While this type of
6
7 'teamwork' mimics such team tasks as the response to a cardiac arrest, when teams form in
8
9 response to an incident, it is not as authentic for other clinical situations when teams take time to
10
11 form, 'gel' and thus to perform optimally. For these reasons, a 'team' of students formed
12
13 specifically to be assessed for their collaborative skills is unlikely to function well (Oakley et al
14
15 2004).
16
17
18
19

20
21 The outcomes that we are trying to assess in this area remain somewhat nebulous, utilising
22
23 phrases that are difficult to define such as 'being a team player' and 'collaborative working'.
24
25 Further research is required to articulate and agree constituent elements across the range of
26
27 professional practice, scoping what novice pre-licensure students can reasonably achieve, as
28
29 opposed to the expert or master with many years of professional experience. A major issue is
30
31 knowing what 'competent to enter practice' is, as we don't have data from practice to help to set
32
33 this level.
34
35
36
37
38

39 Academic, professional and interprofessional considerations and requirements often conflict.
40
41 There may be a specification on the part of some accrediting bodies that students may only be
42
43 assessed by members of the same profession. Differences in educational cultures across the
44
45 professions (and between nations) may also hamper the development of universally acceptable
46
47 and feasible assessments for interprofessional learning outcomes and competencies (Dunworth
48
49 2007).
50
51
52
53

54
55 A wide range of possible activities for the assessment of interprofessional learning outcomes is
56
57 available, as follows:
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59
60

1
2
3 *Conventional assessment of health professions literacy.* Basic role understandings, as a
4
5 prerequisite to higher-level interprofessional learning, can be assessed through conventional
6
7 techniques such as candidate-completed short answer questions or well-crafted, scenario-based,
8
9 multiple choice questions (Morrissey et al 2014).
10
11

12
13
14 *Team-based project.* Students in interprofessional teams can undertake small projects such as
15
16 community visits, writing patient leaflets, hospital audits then produce a report, an artefact (such
17
18 as an art work, poster or video), or give a presentation (Anderson & Lennox 2009).
19
20

21
22
23 *Observation in simulation.* Simulation – particularly the utilisation of extended, multi-method,
24
25 interprofessional simulation activities (Rogers et al 2014a) – provides the opportunity for
26
27 learners' teamwork and interprofessional communication skills to be observed in a relatively
28
29 controlled and predictable environment. In these settings it is quite feasible for assessors to rate
30
31 students' demonstration of particular capabilities on simple Likert-type scales, provided that
32
33 careful calibration and benchmarking is undertaken to ensure reliability of assessments. In
34
35 simulation-based education, students are also engaged as observers of peers enacting simulation.
36
37 Their observations can be used for formative assessment and contribute to the learning outcomes
38
39 of interprofessional simulation training.
40
41
42
43
44

45
46 *Observation in practice.* Assessment through supervisor observation in real patient- or client-
47
48 care practice is a feasible and time-honoured methodology, but has tended to focus at a more
49
50 'global' level than on individual capabilities. Recently, these workplace-based assessment
51
52 (WBA) approaches have been extended to include assessment of interprofessional collaborative
53
54 capacity through initiatives like the Australian Medical Council's 'Intern Assessment Form'
55
56 (which is also being used in the assessment of senior medical students). This document asks
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 clinical supervisors to rate learners' performance in relation, among other domains, to the extent
4
5 to which they appear to 'respect the roles and expertise of other healthcare professionals, learn
6
7 and work effectively as a member or leader of an interprofessional team, and make appropriate
8
9 referrals', rating them on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 'Works in a way that
10
11 disrupts effective functioning of the inter-professional (sic) team' to 'Works effectively as a
12
13 member or leader of the inter-professional (sic) team and positively influences team dynamics'
14
15 (Australian Medical Council 2014).
16
17
18
19

20
21 A frequently encountered problem with observation in clinical, rather than simulated, settings is
22
23 the difficulty of having learners and observers in the same place at the same time and with the
24
25 same protected time. For observation of interprofessional clinical activities there is the added
26
27 difficulty concerning whether one professional will dedicate time to observe learners from a
28
29 range of professions.
30
31
32
33

34
35 *Reflective journaling.* Reflective journaling is a well-established educational technique in health
36
37 professional education (Mann et al 2009) and has the potential to allow assessment of learning in
38
39 the affective domain (according to Bloom's original taxonomy [Krathwohl 1956]) in association
40
41 with emotionally impactful experiences in clinical or simulated settings. Recently this approach
42
43 has been utilised to identify and assess examples of affective learning related to interprofessional
44
45 values during extended simulation experiences (Rogers et al 2012; Rogers et al 2014b).
46
47
48
49

50
51 *Team-based critique.* Scholarship in relation to clinical placement emphasises the importance of
52
53 participation over passive observation for optimal learning to occur (Dornan et al 2007).
54

55 However, active or purposeful observation can still have real learning benefit (Graffam 2007).
56

57 There has been recent interest in devising 'capstone' (pre-graduation) assessment activities that
58
59
60

1
2
3 allow students to apply the understandings of collaborative practice they have gained through an
4
5 interprofessional learning programme by undertaking deliberate critical observation of a
6
7 practitioner team into which they have been placed. Students are required to identify and
8
9 describe examples of effective and less effective collaborative practice they have observed
10
11 between the practitioner team members, as well as the reasons for these evaluations, and make
12
13 suggestions for how the team may improve its collaborative function. These observations form
14
15 the basis of a written assessment piece undertaken toward the end of their study programme.
16
17
18 This strategy has the advantage of being simple to organise and inexpensive to implement but
19
20 might nonetheless provide educational benefit in terms of consolidation of learning, as well as
21
22 summative assessment of higher level learning outcomes. A main drawback may be the numbers
23
24 of such written assignments that need to be assessed – in some institutions across all professional
25
26 learners the number may be in excess of 1000.
27
28
29
30
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32

33 *An interprofessional portfolio.* This is a collection of diverse evidence intended to confirm that
34
35 an individual has met the defined learning outcomes or achieved the required competencies for
36
37 progression within a programme or for certification. A portfolio may also be termed ‘an
38
39 interprofessional passport’ (see for example College of Health Disciplines, University of British
40
41 Columbia 2014). Portfolios usually include two sections: (i) elements provided by educators and
42
43 assessors including the list outcomes or competencies, suitable interprofessional learning
44
45 activities and a template for completion; and (ii) elements provided by the learners including
46
47 discussion of why the outcomes are important for their practice, activities undertaken and
48
49 evidence for their achievement of the learning outcomes. Portfolios may contain evidence from
50
51 all of the other assessment activities discussed in this section.
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3 The method again acknowledges that, while all learners must meet the same outcomes, they may
4
5 not have the same learning activities or experiences. The assessment becomes learner-centred as
6
7 students need to choose activities and reflect on the evidence required to show that they have
8
9 achieved the required outcomes.
10
11

12
13
14 Portfolios have become more popular because of the need for students to learn to select critical
15
16 learning moments for revalidation and appraisal after they have qualified (see General Medical
17
18 Council 2012 for examples). In the UK, undergraduate students have had access to the National
19
20 Health Service ePortfolio to prepare them for managing personal development after graduation
21
22 and the drop down functions, such as 'reflection', offer places to document relevant IPL (NHS
23
24 Education for Scotland 2016). Students completing IPE across an undergraduate curriculum
25
26 have found this valuable and the tool appears to be easily adapted and accepted across different
27
28 professions (Domac et al 2015). In a recent study, analysis of reflective writing following IPE
29
30 within a portfolio has confirmed that students can clearly articulate learning of knowledge and
31
32 consider how they will frame their practice as a result (Domac et al 2016).
33
34
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38

39 Other examples of interprofessional portfolios can be found at the websites listed in the box.
40
41

42
43 [INSERT BOX 1 ABOUT HERE]
44
45

46
47 *Peer assessment.* Self and peer assessment are increasingly being used to assess group and
48
49 teamwork in university settings. This might be based on practical considerations such as
50
51 difficulties in finding clinicians and educators to observe students, but it is also supported by
52
53 learning theory that emphasises the importance of engaging students in their own learning. One
54
55 innovative tool for this purpose is SPARK, which is web-based (Freeman & McKenzie 2002).
56
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1
2
3 Students working in teams assess their own and each other's performance against outcomes
4 defined for the activity. Self-assessment can be compared to the peer assessment and all
5
6 judgments are de-identified.
7
8
9

10
11 *Tools.* There is no shortage of surveys, scales, tools and instruments in relation to teamwork and
12
13 attitudinal aspects of interprofessionalism. These have been developed and used for various
14
15 purposes including: evaluation of interventions to improve team performance; evaluation of
16
17 imputed interprofessional educational outcomes; attitudes to interprofessional learning and
18
19 practice; assessment of team performance and assessment of team behaviours. Such tools may be
20
21 completed by:
22
23
24

- 25
26 • individuals in relation to their perceptions about other professions, interprofessional
27
28 learning itself or some aspect of their team's functioning such as collaboration, job stress,
29
30 job satisfaction and communication (i.e. self-report of belief, behaviour or performance);
31
32 or
33
34
- 35
36 • one or more assessors, utilising behavioural markers during observation of a team in
37
38 action at a specific location (for example in the emergency department or operating
39
40 theatre) or during a specific task in a simulated or real care situation. This second group
41
42 of tools seeks to facilitate and codify the gathering of information through the
43
44 observational approaches described above.
45
46
47
48

49
50 Several self-completed questionnaires and scales have been developed over the last two decades
51
52 and utilised particularly as pre- and post-tests for the evaluation of interprofessional learning
53
54 programmes. The Readiness for Interprofessional Learning Scale (RIPLS) (Parsell & Bligh
55
56 1999) is perhaps the best known, but the many other examples have been catalogued and
57
58
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60

1
2
3 compared by the Canadian Interprofessional Health Collaboration (CIHC 2012) and by Oates and
4
5 Davidson (2014). Contributors to the consensus process generally believed that self-completed
6
7 questionnaires had little to contribute to the summative assessment of the achievement of
8
9 interprofessional learning outcomes by individual learners due to concerns about: the validity of
10
11 scales (Mahler et al 2015; Schmitz & Brandt 2015; Oates & Davidson 2014); the veracity of self-
12
13 reporting; and a philosophical recognition that such scales are, of their nature, reductionist,
14
15 aiming to compress the complex phenomena of interprofessionality into a small number of
16
17 numerical values.
18
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22
23

24 The following tools have been developed to facilitate the organisation and recording of
25
26 observations of performance either in real-time (in clinical settings or simulation), or video
27
28 recordings. It is important to note that tools developed to assess the performance of *established*
29
30 teams are unlikely to be suitable for the assessment of teams comprised of pre-registration health
31
32 professional students.
33
34
35
36

- 37 • ICAR (interprofessional collaborator assessment rubric) (Curran et al 2011).

38
39 This is a detailed tool for the assessment of observable teamwork behaviours and may be
40
41 used for individuals within a team or for the team as a whole. It has six domains with
42
43 several dimensions in each: communication; collaboration; roles and responsibility;
44
45 collaborative patient- or client-centred approach; team functioning; and conflict
46
47 management and resolution. Learners are graded as: not observable; minimal;
48
49 developing; competent; and mastery. The ICAR is quite complex and ideally should be
50
51 used on multiple occasions with repeated observations.
52
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54
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- 1
2
3 • Interprofessional OSCE (iOSCE) (Simmons et al 2011).

4
5
6 While stations may be developed locally, this tool includes behavioural indicators for
7
8 teamwork that are generic. There are four items and a 0-3 grading: demonstrates
9
10 knowledge and understanding of, and respect for, the roles of different members of the
11
12 team; demonstrates ability to work well with different team members; has ensured all
13
14 significant aspects of management have been addressed by a member of the team; does
15
16 not duplicate information provided by a colleague. Simmons' group's paper (2011)
17
18 describes the development of the iOSCE but there are, as yet, no data on its usage.
19
20
21
22

- 23
24 • Team OSCE (T-OSCE) (Hall et al 2011; Solomon et al 2011; Symonds et al 2013).

25
26 Also known as the McMaster-Ottawa T-OSCE, this is a scenario-based assessment with
27
28 scenario-specific content and collaborative practice competencies. It involves observation
29
30 of students in teams. There are six core objectives each containing several items:
31
32 communication; collaboration; roles & responsibilities; collaborative patient and family-
33
34 centred approach; conflict management and resolution; and team functioning, each on a 9
35
36 point scale.
37
38
39
40
41
42

- 43 • iTOFT (interprofessional teamwork observation and feedback tool) (iTOFT Consortium
44
45 2015; Thistlethwaite et al 2016). There are two versions of this tool. The basic version is
46
47 intended for the observation of junior students and has 11 items in the two domains of:
48
49 shared decision making; and working in a team. The advanced form is for more senior
50
51 students or novice health professionals and has 10 items in the four domains of: shared
52
53 decision making; working in a team; leadership; and patient safety. Both versions have
54
55 the same grading: not applicable to this activity; inappropriate; appropriate; responsive.
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Points of consensus on how to assess

- Assessment of interprofessional learning outcomes should, as a minimum, include: candidate-completed conventional assessment of role understanding; and observational assessment of individuals interacting interprofessionally, either in simulated or real patient and client care settings. The observational assessment may involve direct rating of learning outcome areas or utilise specifically-designed tools
- The assessment of the performance of teams (as opposed to individuals interacting in teams) remains problematic in the pre-registration domain and requires further research and development before it can be supported
- Techniques to assess affective learning related to interprofessionalism in the reflective journals of learners have promise and warrant further investigation
- The use of critical writing on the collaborative practice effectiveness of practitioner teams into which learners have been placed has the potential to provide consolidation of interprofessional learning, as well as summative assessment of understanding, toward the end of pre-registration programmes, also warrants further evaluation
- The use of learner-completed tools and scales to measure attitude or perceived confidence is **not** generally recommended as an element of the summative assessment of interprofessional learning outcomes, though some such tools may have a place as part of a portfolio assessment process.

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2
3 *iii) Feedback to enhance student learning*
4

5 Feedback is an integral part of the assessment process that aligns closely with the concept of
6 formative assessment described above. Feedback is currently undergoing a reconceptualization
7 and is seen as vital for motivation and impact when used appropriately (van de Ridder et al
8 2015). Optimal feedback should no longer be seen as a passive activity on the part of the learner,
9 since 'information provided to students is used to influence their subsequent task performance'
10 (Molloy & Boud 2013, p. 19). Thus, learners need to adopt an agentic role, reflecting on and
11 actively assimilating feedback in order to make appropriate changes in their subsequent
12 performance. This is seen as integral to interprofessional learning, where personal insight and the
13 ability to reflect are seen as critical learning outcomes in their own right. In this conception,
14 feedback is a two-way process and learners are encouraged to seek out feedback rather than wait
15 for it to be given to them. In many instances feedback is received following formative
16 assessments; however, feedback takes place throughout teaching, both informally in a classroom
17 when checking for understanding and opportunistically in clinical practice, where experienced
18 practitioners may indicate how a student can progress their competence or capability.
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40 In clinical settings students are frequently reluctant to solicit feedback and may not be sure whom
41 to approach in a busy workplace. If a request for feedback is denied, learners may be
42 demotivated and less likely to solicit comments in the future. Informal feedback processes may
43 be rare due to workforce pressures. More formal systems of WBA are therefore being put into
44 place to give students and clinicians a more structured feedback process (for example the mini-
45 CEX in medicine – Norcini et al 2003) but this is still largely contingent on goodwill and there is
46 a need for protected time. A newly developed approach is to use multi-source feedback,
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3 collecting the views of patients, clients and other professionals in clinical settings (Thompson et
4
5 al 2016).
6
7

8
9 Feedback is a continuous process, focuses on the individual's strengths and weaknesses, should
10
11 always occur before any formal summative assessment and should cover the domains of
12
13 knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviour. Some of the observational assessment tools outlined
14
15 earlier, such as the iTOFT, collect useful feedback that can be placed within a curriculum.
16
17
18
19

20 21 **Points of consensus on feedback**

- 22
23 • The provision of accurate, timely, feedback to learners on their progress toward
24
25 achievement of interprofessional learning outcomes is a critical component of health
26
27 professional education programmes
- 28
29 • Feedback during interprofessional learning should be seen as an active process that
30
31 emphasises the agency of the learner as an active seeker of feedback on the basis of which
32
33 they can improve their performance.
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40 41 ***Gaps requiring further research and scholarship***

42 43 *Understanding the broader impact of assessment in IPE*

44
45 There remains an urgent need to understand the impact of IPE from a societal perspective,
46
47 including its influence on health outcomes (IOM 2015). This larger gap includes measurement of
48
49 the specific effect of the assessment of IPL outcomes as a critical component of IPE.
50

51
52 Specifically, there is a need to define clearly what interprofessional competence or capability
53
54 actually mean at the point of first entry to practice and then how measurement of their attainment,
55
56 or not, impacts on the health outcomes of patients, clients and communities.
57
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1
2
3 Given the complexities that inhere in the assessment of team performance (as opposed to the
4 performance of individual learners within team-based activities) in the preregistration domain,
5
6 further scholarship will be required to confirm that such assessment is actually necessary to the
7
8 improvement in health outcomes prior to its being routinely recommended.
9
10
11

12 13 14 *Identification of the minimum required suite of IPL assessments* 15

16
17 Further scholarly work is needed to define the nature, frequency and timing of a minimum suite
18 of assessment activities required, across a constructively-aligned health professional curriculum,
19 to ensure valid and reliable verification of interprofessional capability at graduation. This inquiry
20 needs to cover a number of issues including: the focus of assessment on the individual or the
21 team; the number of assessors required per student or team; whether assessors should be from
22 same professional background as the examinee or a different profession; how assessments should
23 be moderated; and what remediation processes should be utilised.
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34 Further work is specifically recommended in the promising areas of: the assessment of reflective
35 journaling to identify affective learning; and the utilisation of written assessment activities
36 towards the end of programmes where the learner is placed in a critical posture in relation to the
37 collaborative practice of a team in which they have been placed. Additionally, further
38 scholarship should explore the effectiveness of portfolio-based IPL assessment in general, as well
39 as the relative advantages and disadvantages of the multiple portfolio systems currently in use.
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50 51 *Optimal feedback strategies for IPL* 52

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54 The current resurgence of interest in feedback in relation to the agency of the learner (Molloy &
55 Boud 2013) holds considerable potential to enhance learning in the health professions. More
56
57
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2
3 scholarly inquiry will be required to investigate how this approach might be applied in order to
4
5 gain the most IPL benefit. This should include consideration of seeking feedback from co-
6
7 learners in other professions, as well as from patients and clients, in addition to facilitators. The
8
9 question of how the quality of feedback might be measured also warrants further enquiry.
10
11

12 13 *Faculty development for the assessment of IPL outcomes*

14
15
16 The approaches and activities required in order to prepare academics and clinicians to implement
17
18 interprofessional assessment strategies effectively has been very little studied to date and there is
19
20 an urgent need for scholarly work in this area.
21
22

23 24 *The connection between assessment of IPL and patient-centred care*

25
26
27 As Fox and Reeves have noted (2015), the discourses of IPE and patient-centredness intersect
28
29 and have the potential to reinforce each other in health professional education. Since patient- and
30
31 client-centredness are seen as having great value in improving the outcomes of health care
32
33 (Constand et al 2014), further work is required to ascertain the impact of different assessment
34
35 approaches on the acquisition of this perspective by health professional students.
36
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38
39

40 41 **Conclusion**

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44 This paper has aimed to capture the current global consensus on the assessment of IPL outcomes
45
46 in preregistration health professional programmes, while we await the further development of
47
48 theoretical understandings and empirical evidence in this important area. We hope that it will
49
50 inform local collegial discussions, as health professional educators around the world seek to
51
52 devise and implement approaches to assess these outcomes in their own students. High quality
53
54 assessment of IPL, in every setting in which it takes place, can enable educators to ensure that
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1
2
3 their graduates have the capabilities they will need to practice collaboratively and optimise
4
5 outcomes for their patients, clients and communities.
6
7

8
9 We invite further feedback from you, our colleagues, as you continue this important work.
10
11

12 13 **Practice points**

- 14
15
16 • A core group of international IPE leaders utilised two international consultation
17
18 workshops and a final round of electronic consultation to derive a global consensus
19
20 statement on the assessment of IPL outcomes
21
22
- 23
24 • Points of consensus were achieved to guide interprofessional education programme
25
26 planners in relation to the purposes of assessment in IPE, its application over the course of
27
28 a programme of study, what to assess, how to assess, the value of providing feedback and
29
30 the current gaps in our understanding that require further scholarly enquiry.
31
32
33
34
35

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37 **Declarations of Interest**

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40 The authors report no formal declarations of interest. The work of several of the authors is
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42 quoted, and in some cases endorsed, in this document; where this is the case the material was
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44 included by consensus of the remaining authors who had not contributed to the cited work.
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Table, Figures and Boxes

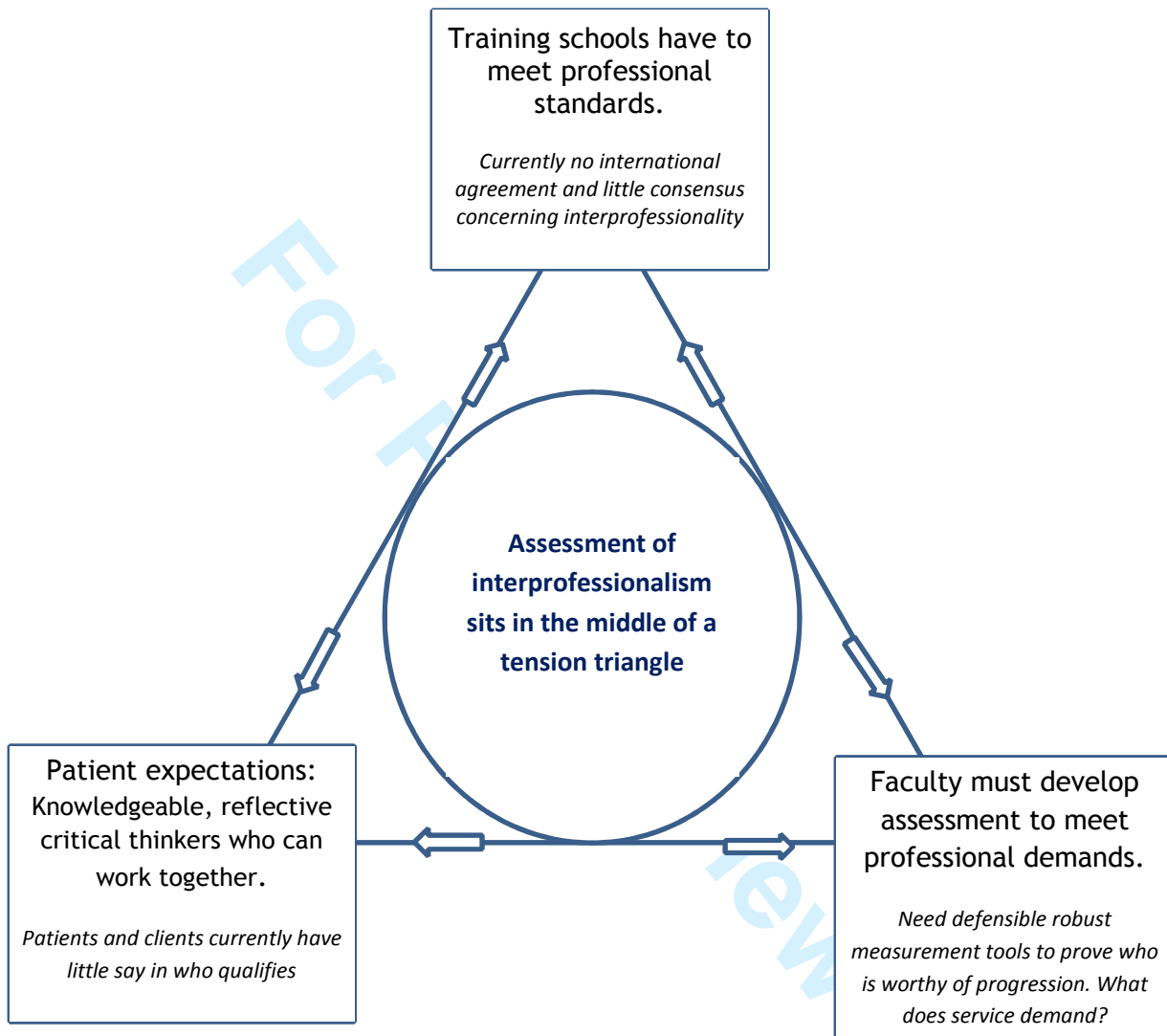


Figure 1: Tension triangle between professional body requirements, service requirements and patient expectations

Framework	Reference	Terminology	Domains
UK (2004) Interprofessional Capability Framework	(CIULU 2006)	Capability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowledge in practice • Ethical practice • Interprofessional working • Reflection (learning)
Canada (2010) National Interprofessional Competency Framework	(CIHC 2010)	Competence	Interprofessional communication <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Patient-/client-centred care • Role clarification • Team functioning • Collaborative leadership • Interprofessional conflict resolution
USA (2011, updated 2016) Core Competencies for Interprofessional Collaborative Practice	(Interprofessional Education Collaborative 2016)	Competence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Values and ethics • Roles and responsibilities • Interprofessional communication • Teamwork and team based care
Australia (2010) Interprofessional Capability Framework	(Curtin University 2010)	Capability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communication • Team function • Role clarification • Conflict resolution • Reflection

Table 1 Some thematic frameworks (adapted from Thistlethwaite 2014)

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13 <http://tiger.library.dmu.ac.uk/Example%20Portfolio%20for%20students%20at%20Leicester-Northants-Demontfort%20Unis.pdf>

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16 <https://tiger.library.dmu.ac.uk/Assessment%20Designing%20a%20Portfolio.pdf>

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18 <http://www.utmb.edu/ipep/PDFs/Scholars%20Handbook.pdf>

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21 <https://www.keele.ac.uk/health/interprofessionaleducation/>

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24 **Box 1: Weblinks for other examples of interprofessional portfolio tools [all cited 2016 Jul 18].**